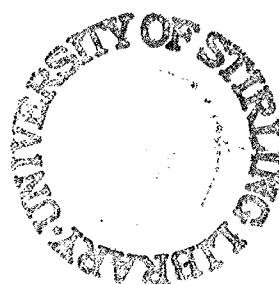


Thesis
1851

"VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER IN WEST PENINSULAR MALAYSIA:
A COMPARISON OF THE EXPERIENCES OF
THE CHINESE, INDIANS AND MALAYS".

A Thesis submitted to the
University of Stirling
in Fulfilment for the Award of
the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy



By,

Abdul Razak Hj Omar

12th. August 1991

3/92

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank the Malaysian Government and the University Sains Malaysia for sponsoring my studies at the University of Stirling and to undertake this research from which this thesis is produced.

I record my sincere and tremendous appreciation and many thanks to Dr. Stewart Butts for his close supervision and guidance, invaluable comments and his moral support towards the completion of this thesis. His utmost understanding of my needs, limitations and his willingness to share his knowledge in this thesis is immeasurable. Without his high degree of professionalism which he extended to me, such work would not have been completed.

I would like to dedicate this thesis firstly to my late father, Hj Omar Ibrahim who educated me and whose motivation brought me to this level of education. Regretfully he did not live to share my achievement. I would also like to dedicate to my mother, Hjh Zaleha Hj Yunan who shares with me all the joys and worries in these years of my studies. I am glad that I have fulfilled her expectations.

Mention is also made to my son, Muhd Faris Syafiq and my

daughter, Diyana Syafiqah who I missed for a year in Malaysia during the course of my study when I left them with a family who gave them parental guidance which I felt greatly sorry for their childhood development. To my wife, Jamaliah I just want her to know how much I love her and I thank her for her love and support. I pray for the sacrifices that she had made and will never forget the days when I have to be away for this study.

I also would like to take this opportunity to express my many thanks to my brothers who, through their contacts with the organisations that participated, helped make useful data available for me.

I am grateful to Asso. Prof. Dr. Hj Mohd Sulaiman, Hadi, Solahuddin, Dr. Latif, Mr. Ahmad Daud, Rauf, Bahktiar, Osman, Kamaruddin, Ismail Supardi, Ismail Mat, Ben Salem, Custom officers in Johore Bahru, Johore State Government and the Personel Managers of the organisations concerned as well as numerous others whose names I cannot mention through lack of space for the kind guidance they have extended to me during the collection of data while undertaking this research.

Finally I would like to dedicate this thesis in remembrance of my late auntie, Mak Cik Timah for her motivating words in my childhood which gave me the challenge and intention to pursue to this level of academic achievement.

ABSTRACT

As a multiracial country, Malaysia's most crucial problem toward national unity is the glaring economic imbalance and racial tension among the races. Several policies have been carried out to eliminate the economic and racial disparities that exist. Amongst them is by expanding the manufacturing sector employing all ethnic groups. However, with the rapid expansion in this sector, a relatively high rate of voluntary labour turnover among blue-collar workers has developed with potentially serious consequences for the process of expansion.

Even though the economic and racial disparities in Peninsular Malaysia are multi-dimensional, the present study focusses exclusively upon the ever-increasing rate of voluntary labour turnover amongst blue-collar workers. Unlike previous studies on labour turnover, the focus of this study is the comparison of labour turnover issues amongst different races in Peninsular Malaysia. This coverage is important because of the scarcity of comparative studies of labour turnover in the country. The three major races are chosen for this study; they are the Malays, the Chinese and the Indians.

The purposes of this study are threefold: To discover the general characteristics of blue-collar voluntary labour

turnover in Peninsular Malaysia; To ascertain correlate and determinant factors which influence blue-collar workers' decisions to voluntarily leave their employment; and finally, to discover the underlying reasons associated with these factors and in each of the three cases to compare the experiences of the different races.

The findings of this study highlight similarities and differences between the Malays, Chinese and Indians' decisions to voluntarily leave their job. The results of this study on organisational and external factors are consistent with the findings of research in other Third world countries. However, the present findings differ in terms of personal factors. It is concluded that the "racial background" and "culture" of the three races are amongst the important elements in understanding the factors influencing their decisions to voluntarily change employment in Peninsular Malaysia.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
Acknowledgement	i
Abstract	iii
Table of Contents	v
List of Tables	xii
List of Exhibits & Figures	xviii
List of Appendices	xviii
List of Abbreviations	xix
 CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	 1
1.0. Background to the Research	1
1.1. The Problem	3
1.2. Research Objectives	8
1.3. Labour Turnover in the Third World and Communist Countries	10
1.4. Significance of the Study	16
1.5. Scope of the Study	24
1.6. Limitations of the Research	25
1.7. Organisation of the Study	26
 CHAPTER TWO: THE MALAYSIAN CONTEXT	 29
2.0. Introduction.	29
2.1. Peninsular Malaysia - General Background.	29
2.1.1. The Country and The People.	29
2.1.2. Historical Background	34
2.2. The State of Malaysian Society and the Evolution of Labour Turnover Problems.	39
2.2.1. Racial Characteristics and Culture Diversity	40
2.2.2. Social Structure and Economic Segmentation.	45
2.2.3. Income and Economic Disparities	51
2.2.4. The National Language, Racial Integration and Employment Opportunity.	53
2.3. The State of the Malaysian Economy and the Emergence of Labour Turnover Problems	55
2.3.1. The Malaysian Economy	55
2.3.2. Progress of Industrialisation, New Employment Opportunities and Problem of Labour Turnover.	58
2.3.3. The Racial Riot and The New Economic Policy	61
 CHAPTER THREE: THE MALAYSIAN LABOUR SCENE.	 65
3.0. Introduction.	65
3.1. Population, Labourforce and Employment Growth	66
3.1.1. Population Growth, 1986-1990.	66
3.1.2. Labour Force and Employment Growth.	67
3.1.3. Ethnic Composition.	68
3.2. Demographic Characteristics	71

Table of Contents

3.2.1. Skill Structure and Working Age	71
3.2.2. Skill Structure and Sex Composition	73
3.2.3. Skill Structure and Marital Status	74
3.2.4. Skill Structure and Education Background.	75
3.3. Labour Market and Manpower Development.	77
3.3.1. Job Availability and Vacancies.	77
3.3.2. Shortage of Manpower and the Labour Turnover Problem	81
3.3.3. Manpower Development.	85
3.4. Employment Conditions and the Work Environments	90
3.4.1. Wages	90
3.4.2. Hourly Work and Overtime Work	95
3.4.3. Job Security.	97
3.4.4. Chances of Promotion	98
3.4.5. Management and Workers Relationship	100
3.4.6. Peer Group Interaction	102
CHAPTER FOUR: LITERATURE REVIEW.	104
4.0. Introduction	104
4.1. Review of Employee Turnover Model	104
4.1.1. The March and Simon Model	105
4.1.2. The Porter et al. Model.	108
4.1.3. The Price Model.	109
4.1.4. The Mobley's Turnover Decision Process.	112
4.1.5. The Theory of Reasoned Action	115
4.2. Empirical Evidence on Factors Influencing Voluntarily Labour Turnover	119
4.2.1. Demographic and Personal Factors.	120
4.2.1.1. Age	121
4.2.1.2. Length of Service	126
4.2.1.3. Family Size and Responsibility.	129
4.2.1.4. Sex	131
4.2.1.5. Education	133
4.2.1.6. Marital Status.	135
4.2.2. Organisational Factors.	135
4.2.2.1. Pay	136
4.2.2.2. Promotion	143
4.2.2.3. Supervisory Practices	145
4.2.2.4. Peer Group Interaction.	149
4.2.2.5. Work Unit Size.	151
4.2.2.6. Job Content	152
4.2.3. External Factors.	153
4.2.3.1. The Availability of Alternative Employment.	154
4.2.3.2. The Level of Employment	156
4.3. The Relevance of Previous Studies in Labour Turnover	157
4.3.1. Limitation of a Theoretical Frame of Reference for Local Study	157

Table of Contents

4.3.2. The Operational Definition of Turnover.	158
4.3.3. The Related Concepts of Turnover.	161
CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	164
5.0. Introduction	164
5.1. Defining Research	164
5.2. Research Questions	166
5.3. Research Design and Strategy.	168
5.3.1. Research Method.	170
5.3.2. Source of Data	171
5.3.3. The Sample	176
5.3.3.1. Sample Size	183
5.3.3.2. Sampling Design	185
5.3.4. Data Collection	187
5.3.4.1. Review of Modes of Data Collection.	187
(i). Interview	188
(a). Personal Interview (Face-to-face Interview).	188
(b). Exit Interview.	192
(ii). Telephone Survey.	193
(iii). Questionnaire: Post-Exit Questionnaire	194
5.3.4.2. The Instruments	198
5.3.4.3. Questionnaire Design	199
5.3.4.4. Timing of Data Collection	203
(i). The Preliminary Study	204
(ii). The Pilot Study	205
(iii). The Actual Survey	209
(a) Contacting the Relevant Companies	209
(b) Contacting the Respondents	210
5.3.5. Data Analysis.	212
5.4. Limitations and Problems in Research Methodology	213
5.5. Summary	215
CHAPTER SIX: THE FINDINGS.	217
6.0. Introduction	217
Part I: The Findings of the Blue-Collar Workers Questionnaire	217
6.1. Presentations of the Research Questions and Results	219
6.1.1. Analysis of the Profile of the Respondents.	219
6.1.2. <u>Research Questions 1: What are the General Characteristics of Voluntary Labour Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia?</u>	221
6.1.2.1. Analysis of the Present Age of the Respondents.	222
6.1.2.2. Analysis of Length of Service with Last Employer of the Respondents	222
6.1.2.3. Analysis of Marital Status of Respondents	223
6.1.2.4. Analysis of the Sex of Respondents.	224

Table of Contents

6.1.2.5. Analysis of Level of Education Achieved by Respondents.	224
6.1.2.6. Analysis of Number of Dependent of the Respondents.	225
6.1.2.7. Analysis of Number of Voluntary Resignation Since Initial Employment of the Respondents.	226
6.1.3. <u>RESEARCH QUESTION 2: ARE THERE ANY CONTRASTING CHARACTERISTICS OF VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG THE DIFFERENT RACES OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?</u>	227
6.1.3.1. Analysis of Voluntary Labour Turnover by Age and Race.	227
6.1.3.2. Analysis of Length of Service of the Respondents by Race.. . . .	228
6.1.3.3. Analysis of Marital Status of the Respondents by Race.	229
6.1.3.4. Analysis of Respondents by Sex and Race	229
6.1.3.5. Analysis of Level of Education Achieved by Race	230
6.1.3.6. Analysis of Number of Dependent of the Respondents by Race	230
6.1.3.7. Analysis of the Number of Voluntary Resignation Since Initial Employment of the Respondents by Race	231
6.1.4. <u>RESEARCH QUESTION 3: WHAT ARE THE FACTORS WHICH CORRELATE WITH VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?</u>	232
6.1.5. <u>RESEARCH QUESTION 4: WHAT ARE THE FACTORS WHICH CORRELATE WITH VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS OF DIFFERENT RACES IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?</u>	240
6.1.6. <u>RESEARCH QUESTION 5: WHAT ARE THE DETERMINANT FACTORS INFLUENCING BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS' DECISION TO VOLUNTARILY CHANGE THEIR EMPLOYMENT IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?</u>	246
6.1.6.1. Analysis of Personal Factors as Influencing Factors on Voluntary Labour Turnover.	247
6.1.6.2. Analysis of Organisational Factors as an Influencing Factors to Voluntary Labour Turnover.	249
6.1.6.3. Analysis of External Factors as an Influencing Factors to Voluntary Labour Turnover.	252
6.1.7. <u>RESEARCH QUESTION 6: WHAT ARE THE DETERMINANT FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DECISION OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS' OF DIFFERENT RACES TO VOLUNTARILY CHANGE THEIR EMPLOYMENT IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?</u>	254
6.1.7.1. Analysis of Personal Factors as an Influencing Factor to Voluntary Labour Turnover	254

6.1.7.2. Analysis of Organisational Factors as an Influencing Factor to Voluntary Labour Turnover .	256
6.1.7.3. Analysis of External Factors as an Influencing Factor to Voluntary Labour Turnover	259
6.1.8. <u>RESEARCH QUESTION 7: ARE THERE ANY DIFFERENCES AMONGST BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA OF DIFFERENT RACES IN THE SUBJECTIVE IDENTIFICATION OF DETERMINANT FACTORS AFFECTING THE DECISION TO CHANGE JOBS?</u> . .	263
6.1.8.1. Bivariate Analysis of Differences on Personal Problem.	264
6.1.8.2. Bivariate Analysis of Differences of Organisational Factor: Pay By Race.	265
6.1.8.3. Bivariate Analysis of Differences of the External Factors: Availability of Alternative Employment, By Race.	266
6.1.8.4. Bivariate Analysis of Differences of the External Factors: The Level of Job Vacancy, By Race.	268
6.1.9. <u>RESEARCH QUESTION 8: WHAT ARE THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH THE DETERMINANT FACTORS AND THEIR STRENGTH IN INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?</u>	270
6.1.9.1. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with Personal Factors in Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover	270
6.1.9.2. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with Pay and Their Influence on Voluntary Labour Turnover	272
6.1.9.3. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with Availability of Alternative Employment and Their Influences on Voluntary Labour Turnover	273
6.1.10. <u>RESEARCH QUESTION 9: WHAT ARE THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH THE DETERMINANT FACTORS AND THEIR STRENGTH IN INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS OF DIFFERENT RACES IN MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?</u> . . .	273
6.1.10.1. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with Personal Problems in Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover, By Race.	274
6.1.10.2. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with Pay in Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover, By Race	276
6.1.10.3. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with Availability of Alternative Employment in Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover, By Race .	278

Table of Contents

6.1.10.4. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with the Level of Job Vacancy in Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover, By Race	278
6.1.11. <u>RESEARCH QUESTION 10: ARE THERE ANY DIFFERENCES IN THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH THE DETERMINANT FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DECISION TO VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG DIFFERENT RACES OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?</u>	279
6.1.11.1. Analysis of Differences on Personal Problems: Family Problems, By Race	280
6.1.11.2. Analysis of Differences of on Personal Problem: Career Development, By Race.	281
6.1.11.3. Analysis of Differences on Pay: By Race a) "Lower Than That of Present Job" b) "Less Than I Deserved" c) "Inadequate Compared to My Qualification" d) "Inadequate For Normal Expenses" e) "Not Satisfied With Pay".	282
6.1.11.4. Analysis of Differences on the Availability of Alternative Employment:By Race "There is Another Job Waiting".	286
6.1.11.5. Analysis of Differences on the The Level of Job Vacancy,By Race: "There was a Lot of Job Vacancies in the Labour Market".	287
Part II: The Findings of the Personnel Managers' Questionnaire	290
6.2. Presentation of the Personnel Managers' Response.	290
6.3.1. Analysis of the Profile of the Respondents.	291
6.3.2. Analysis on Demographic Factors	292
6.3.2.1. Analysis by Sex and Race.	293
6.3.2.2. Analysis by Age and Race.	294
6.3.2.3. Analysis by Education and Race.	295
6.3.2.4. Analysis on Marital Status and Race	295
6.3.2.5. Analysis on Length of Service and Race.	296
6.3.3. Analysis on Personal Factors.	297
6.3.4. Analysis on Organisational Factors.	299
6.3.5. Analysis on External Factors.	302
CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION ON THE RESEARCH FINDINGS	304
7.0. Introduction.	304
7.1. Discussion on the General Characteristics of Voluntary Labour Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia, By Race	302
Part I: Discussion on the Blue-Collar Questionnaire Findings.	305
7.1. Discussion on the General Characteristics of Voluntary Labour Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia, By Race	305
7.1.1. Age	305

Table of Contents

7.1.2. Length of Service	308
7.1.3. Marital Status.	311
7.1.4. Sex	313
7.1.5. Level of Education.	315
7.1.6. Number of Dependents.	316
7.2. Discussion of Factors Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia, By Race . . .	317
7.2.1. Personal Factors.	318
7.2.2. Organisational Factor	319
7.2.3. External Factor	321
7.3. Discussion on the Underlying Reasons Associated with Voluntary Labour Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia, By Race	326
7.3.1. The Underlying Reasons of Personal Factor	327
7.3.2. The Underlying Reasons of Organisational Factor . .	330
7.3.3. The Underlying Reasons of External Factor	333
Part II: A Comparative Views on the Voluntary Labour Turnover Between the Personnel Managers and the Departing Employee.	334
7.4. A Comparative Views on the General Characteristics of Voluntary Labour Turnover	335
7.5. A Comparative Views on the Personal Factors Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover	337
7.6. A Comparative Views on the Organisational Factors Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover	338
7.7. A Comparative Views on the External Factors Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover	339
 CHAPTER EIGHT: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS	340
8.0. Introduction.	340
8.1. Policy Measures Hindering Labour Turnover	340
8.1.1. National Level.	340
8.1.1.1. Matching the Demand and Supply of Manpower. . . .	341
(a). Relocation of An Industrial Area	342
(b). Reduces Outflow of Malaysian Skilled Workers and Increased Inflow of Foreign Skilled Workers.	343
(c). Restructuring Educational System	344
(d). Expansion of Training Centres.	345
(e). Concentration of Labour Intensive Industries . .	345
8.1.1.2. Standard Minimum Wages.	346
8.1.2. Organisational Level.	347
8.1.2.1. Mutual Cooperation Among Personnel Managers . . .	348
8.1.2.2. In-House Training	348
8.1.2.3. Work Culture.	349
8.1.3. Individual Workers Levels	350
8.2. Recommendations For Future Research	351
8.3. Concluding Remarks.	352
Bibliography	420

List of Tables

TABLE 1-1:	NUMBER OF COMPETITIVE OCCUPATIONS DISTRIBUTED BY STATE AND SURVEY PERIODS.	5
TABLE 2-1:	ETHNIC COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA, 1911-1990 (PERCENTAGE)	33
TABLE 2-2:	MALAYSIA: EMPLOYMENT BY SECTOR AND ETHNIC GROUP, 1980 AND 1985	48
TABLE 2-3:	MALAYSIA: EMPLOYMENT BY OCCUPATION AND ETHNIC GROUP, 1980 AND 1985 ('000)	50
TABLE 2-4:	MEAN HOUSEHOLD INCOMES BY ETHNIC GROUP IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA, 1970 - 1984	52
TABLE 2-5:	HOUSEHOLDS IN POVERTY BY ETHNIC GROUP IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA, 1970 AND 1976.	53
TABLE 3-1:	POPULATION OF PENINSULAR MALAYSIA: AVERAGE ANNUAL GROWTH RATE, 1980-1990 (PERCENTAGE)	67
TABLE 3-2:	POPULATION OF PENINSULAR MALAYSIA BY ETHNIC GROUP: AVERAGE ANNUAL GROWTH RATE, 1980-1990 (PERCENTAGE)	69
TABLE 3-3:	POPULATION BY STATE ('000): ETHNIC COMPOSITION IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA.	70
TABLE 3-4:	PENINSULAR MALAYSIA: POPULATION SIZE AND AGE STRUCTURE, 1980-90.	71
TABLE 3-5:	PENINSULAR MALAYSIA: LABOUR FORCE GROWTH, 1980-90	72
TABLE 3-6:	POPULATION BY SEX RATIO, 1980 (PERCENTAGE RATIOS IN BRACKETS).	73
TABLE 3-7:	EMPLOYMENT IN THE MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES 1986/1987.	75
TABLE 3-8:	INDUSTRIAL PROJECTS GRANTED APPROVAL BY INDUSTRY, 1986 AND 1987.	78
TABLE 3-9:	MALAYSIA: EMPLOYMENT BY SECTOR (1987/88).	79
TABLE 3-10:	VACANCIES REPORTED TO MANPOWER DEPARTMENT: BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS, 1987-89.	80

List of Tables

TABLE 3-11: RESPONDENTS ENCOUNTERING INADEQUATE LABOUR: BY INDUSTRY GROUP.	83
TABLE 3-12: RESPONDENTS ENCOUNTERING INADEQUATE LABOUR: BY STATE.	84
TABLE 3-13: MALAYSIA: ENROLMENT AND OUTPUT OF SKILLED AND SEMI-SKILLED MANPOWER FROM PUBLIC TRAINING INSTITUTIONS, 1980-90	87
TABLE 3-14: COMPARISON ON WAGES BETWEEN ASIAN COUNTRIES. .	91
TABLE 3-15: AVERAGE MONTHLY SALARY/WAGES BY TYPE OF INDUSTRY AND SKILL CATEGORY OF WORKERS. . .	94
TABLE 3-16: THE DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS USUALLY SPENT ON OVERTIME PER DAY.	96
TABLE 3-17: THE TOTAL OF THE DAYS WORKERS WORK OVERTIME PER WEEK.	96
TABLE 6-0: UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS, BY LOCATION OF PREVIOUS OCCUPATION AND RACE.	221
TABLE 6-1: UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING AGE DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE.	222
TABLE 6-2: UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING LENGTH OF SERVICE DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE	223
TABLE 6-3: UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING MARITAL STATUS DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE	224
TABLE 6-4: UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING SEX DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE.	224
TABLE 6-5: UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING LEVEL OF EDUCATION DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE.	225
TABLE 6-6: UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING NUMBER OF DEPENDENT DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE.	226
TABLE 6-7: UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING NUMBER OF VOLUNTARY RESIGNATION SINCE INITIAL EMPLOYMENT DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE.	227
TABLE 6-8: CORRELATION OF VOLUNTARY TURNOVER WITH DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA . .	234

List of Tables

TABLE 6-9:	DISPLAY OF BIVARIATE FINDING BETWEEN AGE AND TURNOVER FOR BLUE-COLLAR WORKER IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA (Cross-Tabulation Between Number of Voluntarily Resignation Since Initial Employment by Age).	236
TABLE 6-10:	ANOVA Table for Testing Differences Between Two Sex Groups Means in Voluntary Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia	257
TABLE 6-11:	ANOVA Table for Testing Differences Between Four Marital Status Groups Means in Voluntary Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia.	239
TABLE 6-12:	CORRELATION OF VOLUNTARY TURNOVER WITH DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS BASED ON RACE.	240
TABLE 6-13:	DISPLAY OF BIVARIATE FINDING BETWEEN AGE AND TURNOVER FOR MALAYS (Cross-Tabulation between Number of Voluntarily Resignation Since Initial Employment by Age).	242
TABLE 6-14:	ANOVA Table for Testing Differences Between Two Sex Groups Means in Voluntary Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia : By Race	243
TABLE 6-15:	ANOVA Table for Testing Differences Between Four Marital Status Groups Means in Voluntary Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia:By Race.. . . .	245
TABLE 6-16:	UNIVARIATE FINDING ON PERSONAL FACTORS INFLUENCE TO TURNOVER : OVERALL DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN	248
TABLE 6-17:	ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON PERSONAL FACTORS.	249
TABLE 6-18:	UNIVARIATE FINDING ON ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS INFLUENCE TO TURNOVER:OVERALL DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN	251
TABLE 6-19:	ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS.	251
TABLE 6-20:	UNIVARIATE FINDING ON EXTERNAL FACTORS INFLUENCE THE TURNOVER: OVERALL DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN	253

TABLE 6-21:	ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON EXTERNAL FACTORS	253
TABLE 6-22:	UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF PERSONAL FACTORS INFLUENCE THE TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN, BY RACE	256
TABLE 6-23:	ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON PERSONAL FACTORS: BY RACE	256
TABLE 6-24:	UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS INFLUENCE THE TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN, BY RACE	258
TABLE 6-25:	ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON ORGANISATION: BY RACE	259
TABLE 6-26:	UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS ON EXTERNAL FACTORS INFLUENCE THE TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN, BY RACE	261
TABLE 6-27:	ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON EXTERNAL FACTORS: BY RACE	261
TABLE 6-28:	ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PERSONAL PROBLEM MEAN INDICATED ACCEPTANCE OF THE THREE GROUPS.	265
TABLE 6-29:	ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PAY MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE OF THE THREE GROUPS.	266
TABLE 6-30:	ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AVAILABILITY OF ALTERNATIVE EMPLOYMENT MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE OF THE THREE GROUPS.	268
TABLE 6-31:	ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN JOB VACANCY MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE OF THE THREE GROUPS.	269
TABLE 6-32:	UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH PERSONAL PROBLEMS IN INFLUENCE VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: OVERALL DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN	271
TABLE 6-33:	UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH PAY IN INFLUENCE VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: OVERALL DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEANS	271

TABLE 6-34: UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH PERSONAL PROBLEMS IN INFLUENCE VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN, BY RACE	275
TABLE 6-35: UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH PAY IN INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN, BY RACE.	277
TABLE 6-36: UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH AVAILABILITY OF ALTERNATIVE EMPLOYMENT IN INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEANS, BY RACE	278
TABLE 6-37: UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH LEVEL OF JOB VACANCY IN INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN, BY RACE . . .	279
TABLE 6-38: ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE MEANS OF AGREEMENT ON THE FAMILY PROBLEMS AS A FACTOR INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG THE THREE RACES.	280
TABLE 6-39: ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG THE THREE GROUPS.	281
TABLE 6-40: ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN "LTPJ" MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG THE THREE GROUPS.	283
TABLE 6-41: ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN "LTID" MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG THE THREE GROUPS.	284
TABLE 6-42: ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN "ICNE" MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG THE THREE GROUPS.	284
TABLE 6-43: ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN "IFNE" MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG THE THREE GROUPS.	28

TABLE 6-44: ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN "NSWP" MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG THE THREE GROUPS.	286
TABLE 6-45: ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN "TAJW" MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG THE THREE GROUPS.	287
TABLE 6-46: ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN "JWLM" MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG THE THREE GROUPS.	288
TABLE 6-47: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS, BY LOCATION	291
TABLE 6-48: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS, BY RACE	292
TABLE 6-49: UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE.	293
TABLE 6-50: ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR, BY RACE.	297
TABLE 6-51: UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING PERSONAL FACTORS DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE.	298
TABLE 6-52: ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON PERSONAL FACTOR, BY RACE.	299
TABLE 6-53: UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE	300
TABLE 6-54: ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON ORGANISATIONAL FACTOR, BY RACE	301
TABLE 6-55: UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING EXTERNAL FACTORS DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE.	302
TABLE 6-56: ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON EXTERNAL FACTOR, BY RACE	303
TABLE 7-0: UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH PAY IN INFLUENCE VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND RANKING, BY RACE	332

List of Exhibits, Figures & Appendices

List of Exhibits

	Page
Exhibit 2-1: Peninsular Malaysia.	31
Exhibit 2-2: Malaysia - Its' Location at the Crossroad Maritime Trade	35

List of Figures

Figure 4-1: Factors Affecting Perceived Desirability of Movement.	107
Figure 4-2: Factors Affecting Perceived Ease of Movement.	108
Figure 4-3: Theory of Turnover.	110
Figure 4-4: Relationships Between the Determinants, Intervening Variables, and Turnover	111
Figure 4-5: The Employee Turnover Decision Process	112
Figure 4-6: A Schematic Representation of the Primary Variables and Process of Employee Turnover	115

List of Appendices

Appendix One :List of Classification of Blue- Collar Workers in the Sample.	357
Appendix Two :Blue-Collar Workers' Questionnaire (English Version).	359
Appendix Three :Blue-Collar Workers' Questionnaire (Malay Version).	371
Appendix Four :Personnel Managers' Questionnaire.	383
Appendix Five :SAS Computer Coding Frame for Blue-Collar Workers' Questionnaire.	399
Appendix Six :Cover Letter - Supervisor.	414
Appendix Seven :Cover Letter - Supervisor.	415
Appendix Eight :Cover Letter - Supervisor.	416
Appendix Nine :Cover Letter - Supervisor.	417
Appendix Ten :Cover Letter - University Science of Malaysia	418
Appendix Eleven :Cover Letter - Johore State Government	419

List of Abbreviations

CIAST	- Center for Instructor and Advance Skilled Training.
IMP	- Industrial Master Plan.
MARA	- Majlis Amanah Rakyat
MIDA	- Malaysian Industrial Development Authority.
NEB	- National Electricity Board.
NEP	- New Economic Policy.
NITTCB	- National Industrial Training and Trade Certification Board.
NUTC	- National Training Council.
SIRIM	- Standards and Industrial Research Institute of Malaysia.

CHAPTER ONE:

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Background to the Research

This study attempts to look at the issue of labour turnover among blue-collar workers¹ in manufacturing firms in Peninsular Malaysia². It is an important area of research, mainly because of the increasing number of "competition occupations"³ and the relatively high rate of turnover among these workers (Malaysia: Employment Trends, 1989a). A survey

¹ For the purpose of this study, this group of workers are defined according to major groups 7/8/9 under the title "production and related workers" listed in the Directory of Occupational Classification (Malaysia: Manpower Department, 1980). In this study, however, not included are production supervisors and general foremen.

² The term Peninsular Malaysia refers to all states in Malaysia except Sabah and Sarawak. It is a geographic expression which includes only part of the country, and the term replaces the earlier official designation "West Malaysia". The terms Peninsular Malaysia, West Malaysia, Malaya, and Malaysia are used interchangeably in the present study to refer to the area known as Peninsular Malaysia.

³ "Competition Occupations" as describe in the Employment Turnover Survey (Malaysia: Manpower Department, 1987) as a situation whereby the number of job openings exceed the number of job seekers. This leads to a situation whereby employers compete for workers by offering better employment terms and conditions. This has led in the past to "job hopping" within industries.

conducted by the Malaysian Employers Federation, points out that the highest turnover was found in production which accounted for 68.9%. Among this category of workers, a high percentage was found among the production and related workers- the unskilled category accounts for 47.6%, followed by the semi-skilled and the unskilled category (Ang, 1981).

Although turnover may take place in many types of organisations (Price, 1977), this research is concerned with labour turnover in the manufacturing sector, because of its' contribution to the Malaysian economy. Manufacturing is the largest sector in the economy overtaking agriculture. It contributed 22.4% to the Gross Domestic Product (Malaysia: MIDA Annual Report, 1987a).

Since Malaysia is a multi-racial society, it is therefore more interesting and fruitful to carry-out this study of labour turnover among blue-collar workers on the basis of race. This provides a clear understanding of the racial aspects of the labour turnover situation in Peninsular Malaysia. This information may be useful to the government in developing its policy of overcoming glaring economic imbalances and racial

tensions after the 1969 riots⁴.

1.1. The Problem

Recently, the problem of voluntary labour turnover has been of great concern to the Malaysian Government. The task of overseeing this problem has been taken over by the Manpower Department, Ministry of Labour. In undertaking this special task, the Manpower Department conducts half-yearly surveys to monitor the incidence of voluntary labour turnover. However, the scope of their survey is limited. It identifies significant voluntary labour turnover in particular occupations or industries. It tries to indicate where and to what extent (based on the rate of resignation) the problems emerge. The result of the government's monitoring exercise reveals that the incidence of labour turnover is higher in the manufacturing sector than any other.

As a result of this finding, most of the previous research on labour turnover (Malaysia: Manpower Department, 1987/88/89

⁴. It was in May 1969 that Malaysia experienced race riots. This arose out of Malay unhappiness with their disadvantaged social standing. There was also Chinese anger at the fact that they had little access to formal socio-political power. After these riots the Malaysian government attempted to restructure the economy by introducing the New Economic Policy (NEP).

and Ang, 1981) has concentrated on the manufacturing sector. Given the fact that the manufacturing sector is rapidly expanding and is becoming the largest sector in the Malaysian economy in 1987 (Malaysia: MIDA Annual Report, 1987a), it merits serious attention.

The Employment Turnover Survey (Malaysia: Manpower Department, 1987/88), highlights that several occupations in the expanding industries in this sector are now affected on a national scale by a relatively high rate of turnover. This survey also noted that not only has the relatively high rate of voluntary labour turnover within the specific occupations increased, but also the number of occupations, industries and industrialised states (See Table 1.1) have increased.

Figures released by the Malaysian Ministry of Labour show that in 1986 only one occupation was categorized as a "Competition Occupation". In the first half of 1987 it increased to four occupations covering two industries and finally to eight occupations covering four industries in the first half of 1988 (Malaysia: Employment Trend, 1989a).

At the state level, the number of competitive occupations in which significant voluntary labour turnover occurred, increased in every state in the first half of 1988 against

first half of 1987. This is shown in Table 1.1 below.

Ang (1981) reported that high labour turnover was found to be serious among the Malays who account for 34.7% of voluntary labour turnover compared to other races such as Chinese 15.6%, Indians 12.6% and Others 8.5%.

TABLE 1.1:

NUMBER OF COMPETITIVE OCCUPATIONS
DISTRIBUTED BY STATE AND SURVEY PERIODS

STATE	FIRST HALF OF 1987	FIRST HALF OF 1988
KEDAH	1	6
PENANG	4	9
PERAK	2	5
SELANGOR	5	6
FEDERAL TERRITORY	5	7
JOHOR	1	9
PAHANG	2	6
KELANTAN	1	4

Source: Malaysia: Manpower Department (1988)

The problem of a high level of voluntary labour turnover was further accentuated by the increasing demand for workers. Recently one of the local newspapers reported that some firms in Peninsular Malaysia were confronted with problems of maintaining their manpower. This is because the companies are facing relatively high resignations every month. This made it difficult to fill the newly created vacancies. As a result the companies' operations are threatened (Malaysia: The Star, 29th April 1988a).

It is, therefore, not surprising that recently the number of job vacancies reported to the Manpower Department for these workers has increased steadily. As a result, aggressive employment practices for recruiting skilled manpower have come into being. Several firms were found to be practicing "staff poaching" in order to maintain or increase their production in this increasingly competitive labour market (Malaysia: Employment Trend, 1989a).

In a situation where the country's development is dependent on the manufacturing sector and foreign investment, serious attention on its labour turnover problems must be a priority, particularly in view of the ever deteriorating situation. This view is based on the large number of applications approved by Malaysia Industrial Development Authority (MIDA) for investment in the eleventh month of 1988. These projects when completed, are forecasted to generate an increase of 150.8% in the number of jobs that were created in the corresponding period of 1987. Of the jobs expected to be created from these projects, 82.6% of were for production workers (Malaysia: Employment Trend, 1989a).

In addition to this, Malaysia has to maintain a disciplined labour force (Dunkley, 1982). It requires manpower in order to attract investors to invest in this region

(Malaysia: JSEDC, 1988b). It should be understood that this is one of the most valuable assets for any future investment in Malaysia.

It is clear that if voluntary labour turnover problems among these groups are not solved soon the organisations will face high costs and poor business performance. This will have negative implications for attracting investments in Peninsular Malaysia especially when investors look for the availability and stability of workforce. Eventually this trend will affect the national economy.

Researchers (Farris, 1971 and Ang, 1981) have suggested that labour turnover is very costly to an organisation in terms of training a person who leaves and the retraining of new workers for replacement and in terms of the costs of constant recruitment. According to Farris (1971), turnover might also be undesirable due to the fact that the company might lose good performers.

High rates of turnover could also mean that there is a poor quality of employer-employee relationships. According to Brayfield and Crockett (1955), this phenomenon in general is seen as a form of alienation or withdrawal from an organisation. This is supported by Edwards and Scullion (1982)

who conclude that turnover is an expression of discontent in the workplace, but not necessarily where labour poaching is taking place.

In Peninsular Malaysia, even though some research has been conducted on labour turnover (Malaysia: Manpower Department, 1988 and Ang, 1981), none has attempted to highlight factors influencing blue-collar worker decisions' to leave their jobs especially among the different races in Peninsular Malaysia. Since turnover among these groups of workers has been and still is a problem in Malaysia, it is therefore worthwhile to investigate the factors which contribute to labour turnover and inter-racial influences in Peninsular Malaysia.

1.2. Research Objectives

The primary objective of this study is to attempt to investigate the factors which influence decisions leading to voluntary labour turnover among blue-collar workers in manufacturing firms in Peninsular Malaysia.

Specifically, the research objectives are stated as follows:-

1. To discover the general characteristics of blue-collar voluntary labour turnover, and at the same time to ascertain

if any differences exist in the general characteristics amongst the different races of blue-collar workers with respect to voluntary labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia.

2. To locate factors which correlate with voluntary labour turnover amongst blue-collar workers and amongst the different races in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia.
3. To ascertain the determinant factors which influence blue-collar workers and also of each races decisions' to voluntarily leave their employment in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia. In more detail, this study tries to determine if any differences exist in these factors amongst the different races.
4. To discover the underlying reasons associated with the determinant factors amongst blue-collar workers and also amongst the three races in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia. In more detail, tries to discover if there are any differences in these underlying reasons amongst the different races.

The following section will present a review of the labour turnover issue in Third World countries. Because of the

similarities of their social, and economic setting, this section aims to examine factors contributing to the labour turnover of each country which might perhaps be very useful for the analysis part of this thesis. Because of a few studies in this area in the Third World, it is interesting that this section could also review the available studies in the Communist countries.

1.3. Labour Turnover in the Third World and Communist Countries

The relative lack of data on voluntary labour turnover in the Third World and Communist countries leads to difficulties in making comparisons. This is supported by Price (1977:43) who insists that most data on labour turnover has been gained from the West or in the advanced industrial countries. He writes:

Unfortunately there are almost no data about Latin American countries (except Peru), the countries of Africa (except South Africa), the Communist countries (except the USSR), Asia (except Japan), and the Middle East (no exceptions). Data about the following importance countries are especially needed: Argentina, Brazil, Nigeria, Egypt, China, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, and Iran.

Nevertheless, there are a few studies on voluntary labour turnover such as in Iraq, Kenya, U.S.S.R., Hungary, Romania, Singapore and Hong Kong which are available but not directly

relevant to this study⁵.

Existing empirical studies of labour turnover in the Third World countries which are most directly relevant to the present study were found in the work of Salih et al., (1985). Thirty-four senior personnel managers' were selected as their subjects to give their view on the causes of employee turnover among blue-collar workers in publicly owned manufacturing companies in Iraq. Salih et al.'s., findings suggested that the most important factors causing voluntary separation were known as "better opportunities elsewhere" and "inadequate salaries". Other factors such as "the nature of the job", "poor supervision", or "lack of equality", "social relations" and "promotion" were viewed as secondary causes.

During the period of Salih et al.'s., (1985) study, Iraq was facing a shortage of labour in its' labour market. These researchers reported that Iraq had to depend on non-Iraqis to make up between 4 and 10% of her entire labour force. The

⁵. Although most studies mentioned concentrate on labour turnover issue in each country, their scope are different. For instance, the study conducted by Nigan and Singer (1974) in Kenya does not specifically concentrate on blue-collar workers in the manufacturing sector. Even though their study covers the causes of labour turnover in Kenya, the major issues, however, are the study of the overall turnover phenomena in all sectors. They also study the trends and changes before and after independence. Almost similar type of researchs were found in the study by Koszegi (1978) and Harris (1964)

existence of this situation, then, justified that better opportunities elsewhere were the main causes of labour turnover in Iraq. Similarly, better pay in private companies than in public ones explains why inadequate salaries were the main cause to turnover (Salih et al., 1985).

In Kenya, the study conducted by Nigan and Singer (1974) shows that from figures in 1971, there was an indication that voluntary labour turnover was lower than involuntary turnover in manufacturing, transport and services sectors. Voluntary labour turnover, however, was higher in building and commerce. This study also reveals that the problem of turnover varies depending on areas. Most industrialised areas in Kenya show a higher rate of labour turnover compared to the less industrialised ones. The most important finding, however, shows that the turnover rate was higher before independence.

Nigan and Singer (1974) suggested that there were several reasons which explained the decreasing rate of labour turnover in Kenya since independence. The most important reasons were overpopulation and increasing unemployment in urban areas where people have fewer opportunities for alternative employment. Other factors include relatively high wages and a range of incentives such as education, health, the seniority system, the provision of pension plans, the provident fund, health and

welfare benefits. In addition, Nigan and Singer noted that trade union pressure also helped to reduce the tendency to quit jobs.

In Singapore, results of a study by Ariff and Tan (1987) on employee turnover reveals that Singaporean employees who have less satisfaction with their jobs are more likely to quit. The job satisfaction variables include satisfaction with work, promotion and supervision. In addition, the individual characteristics such as education and job rank are among important determinants of labour turnover. Other variables such as sex, marital status and age were found to be not significant in their intension to leave their jobs. Ariff's and Tan's (1987) study cover 300 employees of a large service organisation in Singapore.

In Hong Kong, a study carried out by Lina (1990) among Hong Kong's technical staff illustrated that pay and promotion opportunities (economic reward) were perceived as the main factors for the respondents to quit their jobs. Her report reveals that many workers in Hong Kong were found to be dissatisfied with their salary review. Her finding shows that 70% of the respondents were found to be dissatisfied with the pay structure and 30% were dissatisfied with the promotion assessment which then led to the intention to quit. Besides

being dissatisfied with pay and promotion, her findings reveal that "Better opportunities" were ranked as the third reason for leaving the organisation. This study however, does not find any strong relationship between individual factors and the intention to quit.

As reported by Lina, the overall labour market in Hong Kong is shrinking because of many incentives offered by organisations which encourage workers to jump from one organisation to another. Furthermore, the shortage of labour in the market has enabled the workers to enjoy a substantial bargaining power within the organisation.

Koszegi (1978) reported that in the Socialist Economies Countries, labour turnover is mostly voluntary in nature with a small proportion initiated by the management (involuntary). For instance, in Hungary, 90% of labour turnover consists of voluntary separations. The reasons contributing to the total labour turnover includes remuneration (20-22%) and motivation related to working conditions (14-15%). Other factors include the attraction of better work and leisure arrangements such as a five day working week.

In communist countries such as the Soviet Union, the problem of labour turnover, which caused great damage to the

economy received a great deal of attention in the early 1960's (Harris, 1964). In the USSR, factors causing labour turnover are related to living conditions and personal problems such as housing, child care facilities, family circumstances, health conditions and the desire to work closer to one's home. Within these reasons, living conditions were reported to account for 23% to 44% of voluntary labour turnover. In most surveys, the desire to improve working conditions were found to account for 25% to 35%. Renumeration such as the desire for higher pay, on the other hand, accounts for 15% to 25% of all separation (Koszegi, 1978).

In Romania, most potential turnover⁶ mentioned the working conditions and the general satisfaction with jobs as the reasons for labour turnover. It accounts for 53% as reasons for turnover. Another 20% cited renumeration as their single most important reason (Koszegi, 1978).

In conclusion, most studies in the Third World and Communist countries presented above reveal that most job changes are driven by the desire for better remunerations such as higher pay or working conditions. Also, better employment

⁶. The potential turnover is defined by Koszegi (1978:318) as "the numbers of workers who would like to change jobs but have not yet done so".

opportunities were found to play a more or an equal part with remuneration as the factor behind voluntary labour turnover.

1.4. Significance of the Study

This section highlights findings of earlier investigations regarding the issue of labour turnover. These earlier studies will be used as frames of reference and will throw some light on the significance of this study. This section also stresses that this study is an extension of the massive body of literature already in existence concerning factors which influence voluntary labour turnover among blue-collar skilled workers.

To provide an overview of the importance of studying this phenomenon, we begin by reviewing previous studies conducted in this field. Given the size of this literature, the first part of this section will only review the appropriate findings of previous research regarding the importance of studying labour turnover issues in an organisation in general. It will then be followed by the second part which aims to establish the relevance of this study for Malaysian organisations and society in particular.

A review of the previous research shows that the issue of

labour turnover has been the subject of research by many personnel researchers, psychologists and economists. However, it has been approached from several different directions (Ley, 1966). According to Porter and Steers (1973), the study of the issue in an organisational context, presents both attractive and important phenomena. In the study of this issue, however, most researchers tend to agree that labour turnover is a costly, complex and interactive phenomenon to an organisation (Faris, 1971; William et.al., 1979; Ang, 1981; Landy and Farr, 1983).

Similarly, several researchers conclude that labour turnover is costly and undesirable for an organisation, in terms of training new arrivals (Farris, 1971). This is supported by Ang (1981) who emphasises the waste in terms of recruitment.

Turnover might also be undesirable due to the fact that the company might lose good performers. In his study, Farris (1971) stresses that if turnover could be predicted beforehand, then action should be taken to control it. For instance, steps could be taken to decrease turnover among high performers and on the contrary, encourage the likelihood of poor performers leaving.

Minimised turnover also means that the organisation is trying to encourage good employer-employee relations. In general, these phenomena are seen as forms of alienations or withdrawal from an organisation (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955). Similarly, Blauner (1964) viewed that the quality of interpersonal contact among and between employees and their supervisor is an important factor in developing positive work values among workers. On the other hand, organisations which do not allow autonomy, responsibility, social connection, and self-actualization might lead to negative work values which further resulted to alienation. This view has been also put forward by Edwards and Scullion (1982) who point out that turnover is the expression of discontent or conflict at the work place. To understand this behaviour means that the employer is trying to minimise the conflict between the employer and the employees.

Although most studies discussed in the literature highlight the negative consequences of turnover, a number of positive outcomes should also be noted. According to Staw (1980) the positive effects of turnover, however, have received little attention in organisational psychology. Several positive consequences as outlined by this author include; turnover may increase organisational performance, reduction of entrenched conflict, increased mobility and morale and also lead to organisational innovation and adaptation.

In conclusion, employers should take positive actions to minimise turnover rates parallel to the companies' goal to have high performance workers in their organisations. They should consider the fact that low turnover rates could be used as an indicator of efficient operations and good labour - management relations.

In addition to the foregoing part which discussed the importance of studying labour turnover issues in an organisation, the following part will highlight the specific importance of this study for the Malaysian organisation in general and Malaysian society in particular. It may be presented in several points as follows:

1986 was a meaningful year for Malaysia in establishing herself toward becoming an industrialised nation. It was during this year that the Industrial Master Plan (IMP) and Fifth Malaysia Plan (FMP) were introduced. One of Malaysia's development strategies incorporated under these plans was the recognition of the role of the manufacturing sector as the spearhead of economic growth for the Malaysian economy. As a result of such a plan and in addition to the favourable investment climate in the country, most parts of Peninsular Malaysia have been transformed into an ideal location for investment. Moreover, there have been various efforts made by

several government agencies to encourage more foreign investors to invest in the country. The shortage of labour in the economy leads to the massive labour turnover in most parts of the manufacturing industries. The supply of labour is unable to meet the demand for labour due to increased number of factories being set up in the various industrial sites. Therefore, to minimize "job-hopping" within industries, it is important for employers to study and understand the problem of turnover. To a large extent, this problem is viewed economically as well as politically as a major threat to the country's development. Therefore, a study of this issue is timely and could provide useful information not only to the firms concerned, but also for the government, employees, trainers, and investors.

This study aims to explore factors that influence the decision to voluntarily change jobs among the three major races in Peninsular Malaysia. This study is important for various reasons:

First, because of the scarcity of research dealing with factors influencing voluntary turnover in Peninsular Malaysia. The issue of voluntary labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia may be considered new. Until now there are only three important studies of turnover in Malaysia. Ang (1981) made a study of labour turnover from a total of 158 companies. The survey involved nine

categories of workers ranging from unskilled to executive levels. The study was conducted in 1981 employing "exit-interviews" as her research approach. Since the study was carried out sometime in 1981, it differs from the present one in terms of its socio-economic environment. Daud (1985) conducted a study of female factory workers in Peninsular Malaysia. Her observations, however, dealt with the overall situation of female industrial workers in an electronics factory in Malaysia. The period covered was between 1977 and 1982. The latest study in turnover was made by the Malaysian Ministry of Labour. The scope of this study, however, was limited. It tried to find out where and to what extent the problems of labour turnover were emerging. Among the three studies, however, none had attempted to compare factors influencing voluntary labour turnover among the races in Peninsular Malaysia. The race issues is a critical phenomenon that will influence any decision making with regard to the economic and political stability in the future.

Second, among the studies mentioned above, only Daud's (1985) study dealt with worker's perception of why they quit their jobs. Her study, however, was limited to female electronic workers. Apart from the studies mentioned above, there are no other studies of voluntary

labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia based on the worker's perception of why they left their previous jobs. This research includes a survey of worker's perceptions about their reasons for changing jobs. Therefore, it is hoped that this study will contribute towards a better understanding of this issue from the primary source of data - i.e. the individual employee.

Third, such understanding of factors affecting labour turnover is very important because most organisations in Peninsular Malaysia could use this information to take positive actions to increase workers' morale. This could lead to higher worker performance, more efficient operations, and better labor - management relations. It also could reduce the numbers of good performers leaving the organisations and the most beneficial effect is in helping to minimizing training and recruiting costs. Moreover, it could provide some guidelines for job-seekers and employers who are operating in the labour markets of Peninsular Malaysia. It also helps to give some ideas to the employer, investor or those firms concerned to find suitable employment and thus help to maintain an adequate manpower supply.

Finally, it could help to assist the planning of the

organisations involved. Organisations which have high rates of turnover should identify their weaknesses and plan to overcome them.

The contribution of this study to the current knowledge is in terms of the "setting" of this research. Most previous studies on turnover research were conducted in industrialised nations or within a single-race society. Unlike previous efforts, the present study is intended to focus on a comparison of this issue among the different races in Peninsular Malaysia. Since Malaysia is a multi-racial society, it is worthwhile to perform this study on the basis of race.

Another contribution that could be made is to fulfil the pressing need of the vital gap between the Third World and the Industrialised nations in the studies of labour turnover as suggested by Price (1977) as in section 1.3 of this chapter.

In conclusion, this research is important since it provides some understanding of factors affecting turnover in practical management situations. An understanding of these factors, not only acts as an investment in the workforce, but also as a tool to prepare workers for effective performance. The avoidance of turnover in organisations also depends on understanding the causes that lead to it.

1.5. Scope of the Study

This study has been limited mainly to discover factors influencing voluntary labour turnover among different races of blue-collar workers in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia. It does not attempt to concentrate on some other area of research such as the prediction of labour turnover or the consequences of turnover. The reasons for this is that they are regarded as not so suitable to the theme of this study. This study also does not attempt to cover all occupational levels, but intends to be solely confined to groups 7-8-9 of blue collar workers as described in the first part of this chapter.

Since the main theme of this thesis is generally to discover the factors contributing to voluntary labour turnover among the different races in Peninsular Malaysia, this study therefore, does not attempt to analyse the factors contributing to labour turnover among the races specifically in or between each state or industry.

The research location of this study is restricted to three major cities - Kuala Lumpur, Penang and Johor Bahru. It covers only five types of industries in the manufacturing sector. The duration of this study is limited to a period of two years, starting from 1987 to 1989. The reason for covering this

research location, industries, and duration will be discussed in detail in chapter five.

1.6. Limitations of the Research

Although every effort has been made in this study to be as professional as possible, the following limitations are deemed unavoidable.

1. The major constraint on this study is that it depends on the cooperation of the organisations involved and the willingness of the participants to respond to the questionnaires in a frank and accurate manner. Responses to this study depend largely on their confidence in the researcher and their belief that cooperation will in no way be detrimental to company interests. In order to solicit the maximum information required the most sensitive questions are avoided.

2. The study is also limited by the inability of the researcher to identify and locate all occurrences of voluntary labour turnover among blue-collar workers in Peninsular Malaysia. Due to inadequate sampling frames, non-probability sampling is used for the purpose of this study. Bailey (1978) asserts that findings can only be used for generalisation when an adequate sampling frame exists. However, this study, has its

own strengths in that it can give detailed descriptions of issues and is therefore suitable as exploratory research.

3. Since this study involves three separate cities in West Peninsular Malaysia, it was necessary for the researcher to travel extensively throughout West Peninsular Malaysia. Since the research is privately financed, the cost of travelling, both in terms of time and money became a problem. This limited the researcher from conducting the survey in all the states of Peninsular Malaysia.

1.7. Organisation of the Study

This study is divided into eight chapters. Chapter One, is the introduction. This chapter presents the background to the research, states the research problem, research objectives, labour turnover in the Third World and Communist countries, the significance of the study, scope of the study, its limitations, and organisation.

Chapter Two, presents the Malaysian context. In this chapter there is an introduction to Peninsular Malaysia, with regards to the country, the people, society and economic setting.

Chapter Three, reviews the Malaysian labour scene. The discussion in this chapter begins with an examinations of the population, labour force, and employment growth. It is followed by an overview of the demographic characteristics of the labour force. Next, introduces the labour market and manpower development. Finally, it presents employment conditions and the work environment in Peninsular Malaysia.

Chapter Four, consists of a literature review. It begins with a review of the relevant models of voluntary labour turnover, followed by empirical evidence on factors influencing voluntary labour turnover. Finally, it discusses the shortcomings of previous studies in labour turnover. This includes the limitations of a theoretical frame of reference for local study and the operational definition of turnover.

Chapter Five is entitled "Research Methodology". It defines the research, outlines the research questions, research design and strategy, research methods, sources of data, sampling design, the sample, sample size, data collection - the instrument, questionnaire design, timing of data collection, techniques to be used to analyse the data and limitations and problems in research methodology.

Chapter Six, is entitled "Presentation of the Research

Findings". It presents a profile of respondents, and the results of the research questions. A number of non-parametric tests were utilised in processing and analysing the data. This include: Univariate or Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Analysis such as Spearmen Rank-Order Correlation and Analysis of Variance (Duncan F-Test).

Chapter Seven is the discussion on the research findings. It consists of the discussions on the general characteristics, personal, organisational and external factors which influence the blue-collar workers' decision to voluntarily change jobs. It ends with a summary of what has been discussed.

The final chapter, Chapter Eight is the "Recommendations and Conclusions". It presents some policy measures to reduce labour turnover, recommendations for further studies and concluding remarks in the area of study is also presented.

CHAPTER TWO:

THE MALAYSIAN CONTEXT

2.0. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to look at labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia. However, before examining this issue any further, it is advisable to provide the reader with a clear understanding of the relevant information on Peninsular Malaysia, with regard to the country, the people, society and economy. It is hoped that this approach will provide a clear basis for the study of this issue.

To begin with, a brief description of the situation, area, and historical background on Peninsular Malaysia will be presented.

2.1. Peninsular Malaysia - General Background

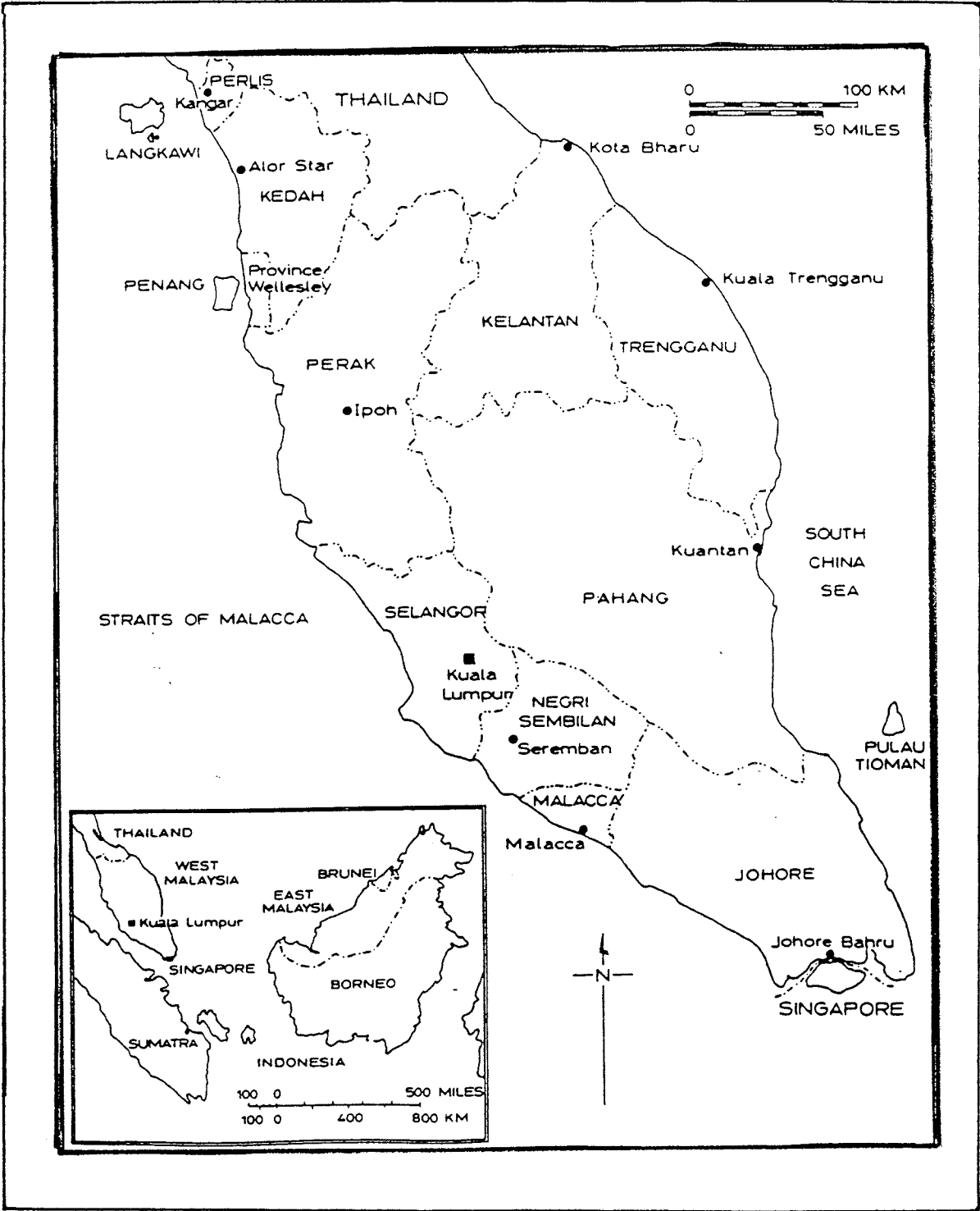
2.1.1. The Country and The People

Geographically, The Federation of Malaysia is located in a central position in the high economic growth region of SouthEast Asia. Malaysia was formally created on 16 September 1963, with Singapore as a member. However, in 1965, Singapore

withdrew and became an independent state. Thus today, Malaysia is a federation of fourteen states, twelve of which are in Peninsular Malaysia. The twelve states of Peninsular Malaysia consist of Johore, Kedah, Federal Territory, Selangor, Melaka, Pahang, Terengganu, Kelantan, Perlis, Negeri Sembilan, Perak, and Penang. It is situated at the southern end of the Asian Mainland; bounded by Thailand in the north and is accessed by a causeway to Singapore in the south. The other two states (comprising of Sabah and Sarawak) are separated by the South China Sea and are located on the northern part of the island of Borneo, now called East Malaysia (See Exhibit 2-1).

Malaysia cover an area of 329,745 square kilometers; the peninsular states accounts for 131,584 square kilometers or 40% of the land area (Malaysia: Fifth Plan, 1986). The climate is tropical with an average daily temperature ranging from 21 degree celsius to 32 degree celsius (Malaysia: Year Book, 1989c). Most of the country is mountainous, except for the alluvial plains, structured by short rivers flowing from the mountains along the West coast of the Peninsular. This condition encourages cultivation of rice and also the extraction of tin. Owing to it natural wealth, most of the cities and manufacturing industries are concentrated in this part of Peninsular Malaysia (Young et al., 1980).

EXHIBIT 2-1: PENINSULAR MALAYSIA



The official language of Malaysia is Malay (Bahasa Malaysia). As stated by the Constitution, Islam is the national religion of Malaysia. However, there are provisions for the freedom of religions. Besides Islam, Buddhism is the second largest religion in Malaysia. It became the second dominant religion with the existence of the Chinese community in Malacca in the fifteen century. Other religions practiced in Malaysia are Hinduism, Sikhism, and Christianity (Malaysia: Yearbook, 1989c).

In 1990, Malaysia has a total populations of about 17.9 million. About fourteen millions (81.7%) of the population live in Peninsular Malaysia which comprises four main groups- Approximately 58.1% of the population are Malays, 31.4% Chinese, 9.9% Indians and 0.65% others make up the population (Table 2-1) (Malaysia: Fifth Plan, 1986).

The Malays, from whom the country got its name are the dominant ethnic group. They settled in the territory of Malaysia much earlier than the other immigrant communities such as the Chinese and the Indians (Rabushka, 1973). They are considered the indigeneous people. On the contrary, The Chinese and Indians are minority groups who migrated to the country in the nineteenth century. Malaysia's population today represents a highly variegated ethnic mix which makes it one of the most

unique multi racial societies in the world (Malaysia: Yearbook, 1989c).

TABLE 2-1

ETHNIC COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION IN
PENINSULAR MALAYSIA, 1911-1990 (PERCENTAGE)

ETHNIC GROUP	1911	1921	1931	1947	1957	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990
MALAY	59.0	54.0	49.0	50.0	50.0	52.7	53.0	55.1	56.5	58.1
CHINESE	30.0	29.0	34.0	38.0	37.0	35.8	35.6	33.9	32.8	31.4
INDIAN	10.0	15.0	15.0	11.0	11.0	10.7	10.6	10.3	10.1	9.9
OTHERS	1.0	2.0	2.0	1.0	2.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6
TOTAL (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Adapted from Wah, Lim Chong (1967), Malaysia: Fourth Plan (1981:74) and Malaysia: Fifth Plan (1986:129).

Today, Malaysia is considered a developing country. This setting is an outcome of historical processes which influenced all its social, economic, and political activities. It was colonized by the British in 1786. After gaining independence from the British in 1957, Malaysia's governmental institutions follow the British system and traditions with legislative powers conferred in the two Houses of Parliament: the House of Representatives and the Senate. It is a parliamentary democracy and a constitutional monarchy and it is one of the most stable political systems in the region. The Malaysian government (with more than two-thirds majority in Parliament), assures foreign investors of a strong Government dedicated to

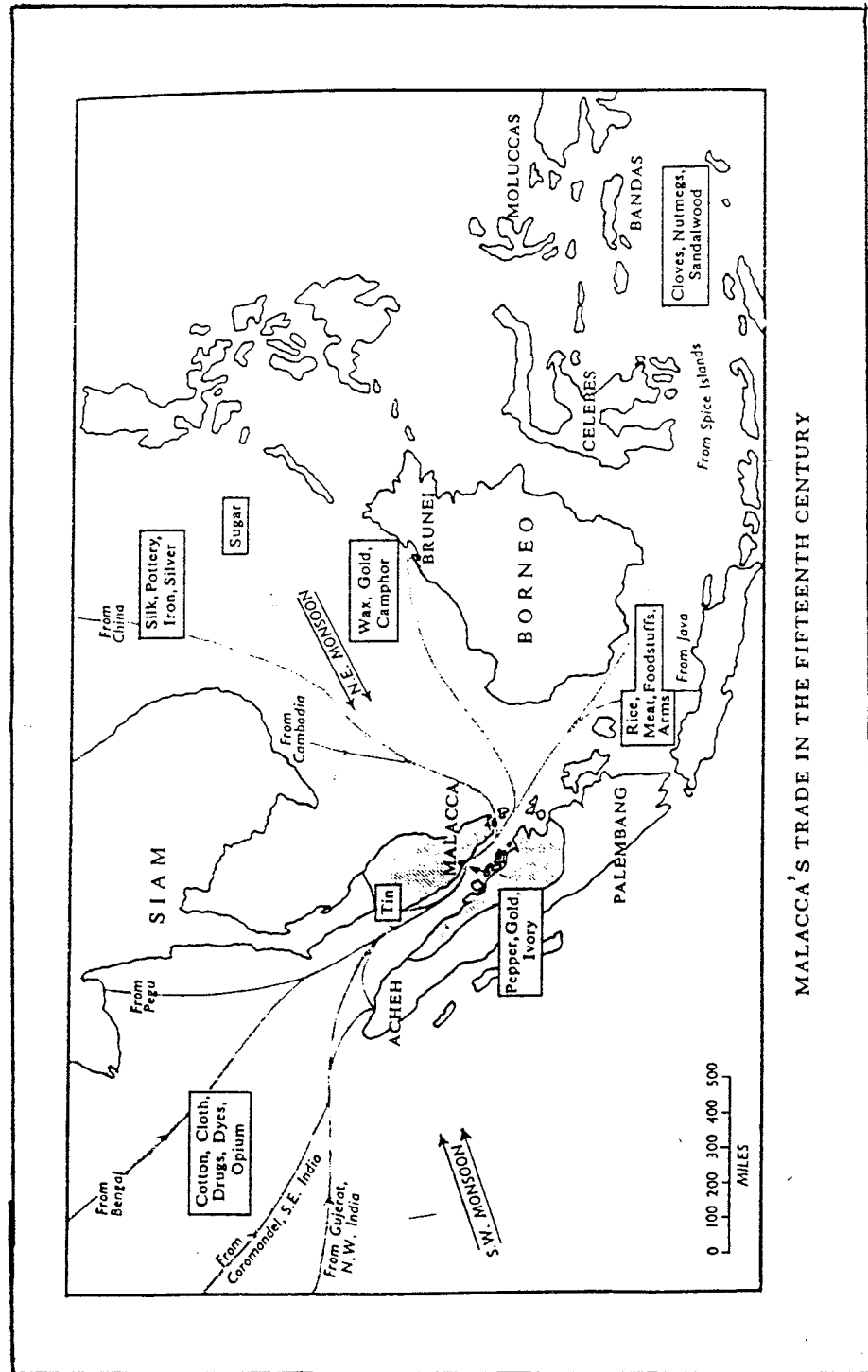
development (Malaysia: Yearbook, 1989c).

Most of Peninsular Malaysia's problems stem from its past (Aun, 1983). Thus, a clear understanding of its' historical background could provide a better picture of the present situation. The next section, presents a brief description on Peninsular Malaysia's historical background.

2.1.2. Historical background

With the coming into prominence of the Mallacca strait in the fifteen century, Peninsular Malaysia was introduce to the outside world. Strategically, its location at the crossroads of maritime trade between China and India (See Exhibit 2-2), played an important role in promoting the port of Mallaca. This gradually led to the development of the earliest state in Peninsular Malaysia, which attracted many kind of traders- Indian, Sumatran, Javanese, Thai, Vietnamese, Chinese, Persian, Arab, Buginese, Portuguese, Dutch, and English (Provencher, 1987). Located at the crossroads of maritime trade between China and India, it further became a place where Hindu, Buddhist and Islamic influences intersected. In this period Malay domination of the government and employment was prominent in the country.

EXHIBIT 2-2: MALAYSIA - ITS' LOCATION
AT THE CROSSROAD MARITIME TRADE



Under Portuguese colonisation in 1511, there was more trading than subjugation. The main purpose of the Portuguese was to maintain a permanent and strategic trading base. The same interests were present under the Dutch when they took over Malacca in 1641 (Young et al.,1980).

When the British established their presence in the region in the Nineteenth Century, their early main interest was also the expansion of trade. They were also inspired by the desire to get hold of the rich tin fields in the Peninsular (Alagandram, 1977). This meant the starting point of a disintegration of demographic and economic break from the past in Peninsular Malaysia (Hirschman, 1987). This view point is supported by Provencher (1987) who reports that with the new discoveries of tin in Perak and Selangor in the 1850s, and the introduction of commercial agriculture in the late nineteenth century by the British, began the radical change in the labour pattern and of economic activity in the Peninsular Malaysia. In this century, there began a period of increasing economic involvement in regional and world trade, involving the supply of food, spices and tin ore to not only in SouthEast Asia but also to the rest of the world.

During this period, most of the local people (the Malays) were involved in subsistence agriculture. They had little

involvement in tin, rubber industry or other commercial activities in town. Only a few of them established rubber smallholdings. In general the Malays preferred their own traditional style of rural life and were reluctant to enter into the almost slavlike work in the harsh living conditions of mines and on the plantations. Understanding the situation, this preference was reinforced under the British colonial policy (Young et al., 1980). The Malays were then left to prosper in their own traditional ways, separated from the modern sector (Aun, 1983).

The rapid development, and economic change in the country meant that there was a need for an increasing amount of cheap labour for the growing export sector. To cope with this situation, the British allowed a large number of Chinese and Indian immigrants to come to Peninsular Malaysia to be engaged as labourers. Their intention was to recruit them as mine labourers. Many of them were brought by Chinese merchants who supplied labour through indentured labourers. They were brought from South China under an indenture system and the majority arrived penniless. Under this system, they had to work in the tin mines for a particular period with working conditions which were generally poor and most of them were immorally exploited. In return they were given food and low wages. Once their contract expired they were released either to return to their

homeland or to take up other occupations. Some began to consider Peninsular Malaysia as their home and started their own small-scale businesses including tin mines in Peninsular Malaysia (Aun, 1983). This marked the beginning of Chinese domination in the commerce activity of Peninsular Malaysia.

Like the Chinese, the Indian immigrants were brought in to Peninsular Malaysia through the indenture system. They came from Southern India to work in the sugar cane, coffee and rubber plantations which were introduced by British planters to Peninsular Malaysia in the late nineteenth century. Through the indenture system these workers had to work for two or three years in plantations. When their terms expired, some of them stayed behind to work in the plantations, while others returned home (Aun, 1983).

Young et al., (1980: 10) in his study on the social and political setting in Peninsular Malaysia concludes that these economic and social changes made by the colonial government or power influenced residential and occupational stereotypes of the three races in Peninsular Malaysia. He writes,

Most of the Malays live in the rural areas engage in smallholder agriculture and fishing; urban Malays generally work in the government bureaucracy, the armed forces and police, and the lower rungs of the manufacturing and services sector. Most Chinese live in urban areas, where they dominate commerce; rural Chinese engage in tin mining and in agriculture as smallholders.

Most Indians live in the rubber and oil palm estates; urban Indian are in the professions and services. Recent changes have made these stereotypes increasingly inapplicable, but they continue to be indicative of residential and occupational patterns.

2.2. The State of Malaysian Society and the Evolution of Labour Turnover Problems

Malaysian society is characterised by its highly complex ethnic and cultural structure (Arles, 1971). Therefore, any study of labour problems in Malaysian society must devote a special attention to the racial characteristics and the diverse cultures of the Malaysian community. This is important because being a multi-ethnic society, the existence of the diverse cultures among the ethnic groups not only creates a weak sense of nationhood and ethnic ill-felling among her population, but also has an impact on their behaviours in the work place. The diverse cultures can be seen in language, religion and cultural preferences. To a large extent, its main labour problem is ethnic based social stratification and diversity of cultures. As mentioned earlier, this pattern is an outcome of historical processes which affected the economic, social and political life of the different races.

The next section will present the racial characteristics and cultural diversity of the three ethnic groups existing in Peninsular Malaysia.

2.2.1. Racial Characteristics and Cultural Diversity

As noted in section 2.1.1. the major ethnic groups in Peninsular Malaysia are the "Malay", "Chinese", "Indian" and "Others". The Malay or "Orang Melayu" as they are called, is defined in the Malaysian Constitution of Malaysia (1963) as "anyone who is a Muslim, habitually speaks Malay language, and follows Malay customary law" (Article 160 [2]). Whereas according to Hirschman (1987:555):

The Chinese and Indian communities are supposed to consist of the descendants of immigrants from China and the Indian subcontinent. 'Other' is a catchall category for the small number of Eurasians, Thais, Europeans, and other persons who do not fit into the three major categories.

Since the Malaysian population primarily consists of three major ethnic groups - the Malays, Chinese, and Indians, the following discussion, therefore, the researcher will narrow down its scope to these three major races.

From the traditional Malay point of view, it has been recognised that Peninsular Malaysia is the homeland of Malays. This view is simply that the Malay monarchies monopolized the political system earlier than other ethnic groups. The Malay

consider themselves as "indigeneous" or "bumiputra"¹. This has been explicitly recognised by other Asian governments such as Thailand and Singapore (Provencher, 1987).

The Malays are identified with Islam. They are the dominant group controlling the political sphere and bureaucracy. Apart from being the most influential group, the Malays constitute the highest proportion of the total population. It comprise of 50.4% in 1968, whereas the Chinese and Indians composed of 36.4% and 11% respectively. According to Arles (1971:528) "The figures from previous censuses show the remarkable stability of this ethnic pattern over the past forty years or so. For example, the proportion of Malays has been between 49 and 50% ever since 1931".

There are many kinds of group that can be identified among the Malay in Peninsular Malaysia. However, the three major

¹ "The Bumiputra" or "indigeneous" is a sanskrit word which means "princes of the soil". In Malaysia it refers to the Malays and other indigenous groups such as Bajaus, Bisayahs, Dumpas, Idahans, Kadazans, and others of Sabah and Melanaus, Ibans, Bidayuhs, kadayans and others of Sarawak. In contrast, the word "Non-Bumiputra" refers to non-indigenous groups such as the Chinese, Indians and others such as Eurasians and Europeans. For the purpose of this study, the terms Bumiputra, Indigenous and Malay are used interchangeably to refer to the Malay race.

groups are the Aborigines (orang Asli), the Malays, and Malay-related. Due to similarities between the dialects of these ethnic groups, the Malay is less complicated than the Chinese. The Malay dialects differ in terms of regional slang and pronunciation.

The Malays good characteristics such as their loyalty, generosity, accomodating, polite, hospitality and have a strong respect for their elders and traditional leaders have always been described by many British officials. On the other hand, their bad characteristics have always been portrayed as shy, easy-going - considers time as not important and lazy (Jesudason, 1989; Yassin, 1990). The view that described the Malays as lazy, however, is considered offensive to the new generation. Many researchers found that this were inaccurate to give such a label to the modern Malay generation (Yassin, 1990).

Historically, the Chinese in Peninsular Malaysia are descendents of the Chinese emigrants from south-eastern provinces of China, particularly Kwangtung and Fukien, during the nineteenth century (Gullick, 1964). They are "more" Chinese compared to the Indonesian Chinese (Suryadinata, 1985).

The Chinese ethnicity is more complex than the Malays.

They have different clans and numerous dialects (such as Cantonese, Hokkien, Foochow, etc.) which are different from one another. The Cantonese and Hokkien form the largest dialect groups, but the majority of them are Chinese-speaking. There are also Malay-speaking communities such as "Straits Chinese", "Baba Chinese" or "Peranakan", their number are however, relatively small. These are immigrant communities dating from the Melakan period and have assimilated much of Malay culture.

Religiously, Malaysian Chinese are either Buddhists, Confucianists, Christians or proportionately small numbers of Muslims. The majority of them live in the major cities and towns of Malaysia. They are renowned as being hardworking, very ambitious, intelligent and thrifty. They are capable in handling money and are said to be harsh when it comes to money matters. As such, to a large extent, it has made them the most successful and dominant ethnic group in Malaysian business and commercial activities (Yassin, 1990).

Like the Chinese, the Indians are the descendents of the Indian emigrants during the nineteenth century. Their population consists of Malayanis and Tamils (they are from Tamil Nadu, state of southern India), Punjabis, Sikhs, Sinhis, Gujeratis, Bengalis and Marwaris (They are from Northern India) and the Ceylon Tamils (who came from Sri Lanka). The largest

number in this ethnic group are the Tamils (80%) whilst the Sikhs and the Malayalees form the minorities (Yassin, 1990). Religiously, the vast majority of the Indians consist of Hindus, while the rest are either Muslims, Sikhs, Buddhists, and Christians.

The Indians are a less sophisticated group. They are less educated compared to their Malay or Chinese counterparts. Like the Malays, their kinship ties are strong and the elders and leaders are well-respected by them. The Indian's bad characteristic is that they like to get drunk in *todi* or *samsu* (Indian alcoholic drink) (Yassin, 1990). This bad habit among the Indians has been a great concern to the Malaysian Indian Youth Council (Majlis Belia India Malaysia). The president of this council has seek the government's help to overcome this problem by having restrictions in the selling of the drink (Malaysia: Utusan Malaysia, 24th March 1991).

Ness (1967) quoted in Rabushka (1973:64) viewed the characteristics of the Malays, Chinese and Indians as follow;

It is widely believed that the Chinese are achievement-oriented, industrious, opportunistic, avaricious, and are sharp business men. Malays are held to lack achievement orientation, to be lazy, and to show a distaste of hard labour. At the same time they are believed to be loyal, polite and proud. The Chinese are believed to be self-reliant, while the Malays rely upon government assistance and protection - a result of the spoon-feeding of colonial protection. The estate Indians are generally

considered to be low in mental ability, lacking in self-reliance and achievement orientation. The urban commercial class of Indians, on the other hand, share many of the characteristics of the Chinese, especially in commercial and financial matters; they are not, however, thought to be as industrious or as work-oriented as the Chinese.

2.2.2. Social Structure and Economic Segmentation

Peninsular Malaysia is a plural society². It has more than one main ethnic group which live harmoniously under one political system. These ethnic groups, however, perform different social and economic function. Emerson (1957) as cited in Leng and Ting (1986:87) suggests that differences in culture and economic achievements between these ethnic groups in this multi-ethnic society generates some problems for national unity. He writes,

divided from each other in almost every respect, the peoples of Malaya (now Malaysia) have in common essentially only the fact that they live in the same country. In race, religion, language, culture, economic interests, and the other attributes usually associated with the existence of a nation whose outstanding characteristics is not unity but profound diversity.

². Furnivall (1939) cited in Rabushka (1973:14) defined a plural society as "comprising two or more elements or social orders which live side by side, yet without mingling, in one political unit". Rabushka (1973:15) concluded that plural society can be identified by: "(1) cultural diversity, (2) the existence of politically organized cultural communities, and (3) the overwhelming prominence of race in politics".

The major social differences between the Chinese, Indians and the Malays are to be found in language, religion and cultural preferences which range from the way they live, eating habits to forms of celebration (Daud, 1985).

The majority of the Malay ethnic group live in rural areas and engage in small-holder agriculture and fishing. Because this group is poor, they normally engage in traditional agriculture and fish farming which results in low productivity. On the other hand, the urban Malays work in the government bureaucracy, armed forces and police, and in manufacturing and services sectors. However, although they are employees in the manufacturing and services sector, the majority of the Malays are employed in lower level jobs (Young et.al., 1980).

In contrast, the Chinese are essentially the domestic capitalist class. They have been established as the middle class and represented an important economic group since the colonial period. They dominate the modern sectors of the economy and are found mostly in the urban areas. Whilst there are poor Chinese as a group the Chinese own a significant proportion of the means of production and are better off than any of the other ethnic groups. Even though they are economically at an advantage they lack power in parliament and the government bureaucracy. They are disproportionately

represented in the professions and have predominated in retail trade, transport and commerce (Suryadinata, 1985).

The Indians, on the otherhand, are the minority and are found in the modern agricultural sector in the rural areas, i.e. plantations. There is some Indian ownership in the private sector of the economy and they are fairly well-represented in professional areas. The majority of the Indians in the population have been confined to the low pay estate agricultural sector or the lower levels of government service (Young et.al., 1980).

Table 2-2 below, illustrates the 1980 and 1985 employment distribution by sector and by race. The data from this table reveals that the majority of the Malays are engaged in agriculture, forestry, livestock and fishing. While the Chinese are mostly involved in the commercial and industrial sector. The Indians are concentrated in the commercial, transport and communication sector.

In addition, Table 2-3, display the employment by occupation distribution within each ethnic in 1980 and 1985.

TABLE: 2-2

MALAYSIA: EMPLOYMENT BY SECTOR AND
ETHNIC GROUP, 1980 AND 1985

SECTOR	1980					1985				
	MALAY	CHINESE	INDIAN	OTHERS	TOTAL	MALAY	CHINESE	INDIAN	OTHERS	TOTAL
Agriculture, Forestry, Livestock, & Fishing (%)	1,396.9 (73.1)	313.4 (16.4)	185.3 (9.7)	15.3 (0.8)	1,910.9 (100.0)	1,428.8 (73.2)	318.3 (16.3)	188.5 (9.6)	17.6 (0.9)	1,953.2 (100.0)
Mining and Quarrying (%)	27.2 (33.9)	43.8 (54.7)	8.5 (10.6)	0.6 (0.8)	80.1 (100.0)	21.3 (35.2)	32.5 (53.7)	6.0 (9.9)	0.7 (1.2)	60.5 (100.0)
Manufacturing (%)	308.8 (40.9)	380.8 (50.4)	60.7 (8.0)	4.8 (0.6)	755.1 (100.0)	352.7 (42.6)	394.1 (47.6)	75.4 (9.1)	5.8 (0.7)	828.0 (100.0)
Construction (%)	105.6 (39.1)	144.3 (53.4)	17.3 (6.4)	3.0 (1.1)	270.2 (100.0)	147.7 (39.0)	206.4 (54.5)	20.8 (5.5)	3.8 (1.0)	378.7 (100.0)
Electricity, Gas & Water Supply (%)	20.8 (67.1)	3.0 (9.7)	7.0 (22.6)	0.2 (0.6)	31.0 (100.0)	27.1 (67.9)	3.5 (8.8)	9.1 (22.8)	0.2 (0.5)	39.9 (100.0)
Transport, Storage and Communication (%)	110.2 (52.6)	73.3 (35.0)	24.9 (11.9)	1.1 (0.5)	209.5 (100.0)	147.3 (55.6)	88.5 (33.4)	28.3 (10.7)	0.8 (0.3)	264.9 (100.0)
Wholesale, Retail Trade & Hotel and Restaurant (%)	249.5 (36.9)	373.9 (55.3)	50.1 (7.4)	2.7 (0.4)	676.2 (100.0)	323.3 (38.2)	460.4 (54.4)	60.1 (7.1)	2.5 (0.3)	846.3 (100.0)
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate & Buss. Services (%)	28.9 (36.9)	43.3 (55.3)	5.8 (7.4)	0.3 (0.4)	78.3 (100.0)	38.8 (38.2)	55.0 (54.1)	7.4 (7.3)	0.4 (0.4)	101.6 (100.0)
Government Services (%)	389.2 (59.1)	195.8 (29.7)	64.2 (9.8)	9.0 (1.4)	658.2 (100.0)	506.0 (61.7)	221.6 (27.1)	81.8 (10.7)	10.1 (1.2)	819.5 (100.0)
Other Services (%)	87.9 (59.6)	42.3 (28.7)	15.3 (10.4)	1.9 (1.3)	147.4 (100.0)	108.7 (61.8)	46.3 (26.3)	18.8 (10.7)	2.1 (1.2)	175.9 (100.0)
Total employed (%)	2,725.0 (56.6)	1,613.9 (33.5)	439.1 (9.1)	38.9 (0.8)	4,816.9 (100.0)	3,101.7 (56.7)	1,826.6 (33.4)	496.2 (9.1)	44.0 (0.8)	5,468.5 (100.0)

Source: Adapted from Malaysia: Fifth Plan (1986:102).

From Table 2-3 below, reveals that in contrast to the Chinese and Indians, the Malays are awkwardly centered in the

agricultural occupations. On the other hand, the Chinese are in the administrative, managerial and sales positions, while the Indian mostly concentrated in professional and production occupations. The major point of interest in analysing the differences in the occupational distribution among these various ethnic groups is that it shows the relative economic positions among the different ethnic groups.

The solution to the prolongation of this residential imbalance and the occupational stereotypes are economically and politically crucial to the country's unity. In order to eliminate the racial discord and disparity between the various ethnics groups, the Government is restructuring the society. The Government is encouraging the private sector, especially manufacturing, to employ workers from all races. The government, therefore, is putting great emphasis on the participation of the Malays in the private sector.

In comparison to other ethnic groups, the Malays are known to be less urbanised. They are more concentrated in agricultural and government services occupations. With regards to occupations in production, the Chinese and to a lesser extent, the Indians are the dominant groups controlling the supervisory level compared to the Malays. However, at the unskilled level Malays are predominant (Daud, 1985).

TABLE: 2-3

MALAYSIA: EMPLOYMENT BY OCCUPATION AND
ETHNIC GROUP, 1980 AND 1985 ('000)

OCCUPATIONAL GROUP (1)	1980					1985				
	MALAY	CHINESE	INDIAN	OTHERS	TOTAL	MALAY	CHINESE	INDIAN	OTHERS	TOTAL
Professional and technical (2) (%)	154.9 (53.7)	97.5 (33.8)	29.7 (10.3)	6.0 (2.1)	288.1 (100.0)	193.9 (54.4)	115.5 (32.4)	39.8 (11.1)	7.5 (2.1)	356.7 (100.0)
Administrative and Managerial (3) (%)	14.7 (28.6)	32.7 (63.6)	2.5 (4.9)	1.4 (2.7)	51.4 (100.0)	17.5 (28.2)	40.9 (66.0)	3.1 (5.0)	0.5 (0.8)	60.5 (100.0)
Clerical (4) (%)	183.3 (52.3)	133.1 (37.9)	31.2 (8.9)	3.1 (0.9)	350.9 (100.0)	224.7 (54.0)	152.9 (36.8)	36.1 (8.7)	2.1 (0.5)	415.8 (100.0)
Sales (5) (%)	146.4 (31.1)	292.2 (62.0)	31.5 (6.7)	1.1 (0.2)	471.1 (100.0)	216.3 (37.9)	324.1 (56.8)	30.0 (5.2)	0.5 (0.1)	570.9 (100.0)
Service (6) (%)	231.6 (55.4)	139.8 (33.4)	41.8 (10.0)	5.1 (1.2)	418.2 (100.0)	305.2 (57.9)	164.4 (31.2)	51.1 (9.7)	6.3 (1.2)	527.0 (100.0)
Agricultural (7) (%)	1,369.8 (73.5)	315.6 (16.9)	163.9 (8.8)	15.1 (0.8)	1,864.4 (100.0)	1,402.6 (73.5)	327.2 (17.2)	158.6 (8.3)	19.0 (1.0)	1,907.4 (100.0)
Production (8) (%)	624.2 (45.5)	603.0 (43.9)	138.5 (10.1)	7.1 (0.5)	1,372.8 (100.0)	741.5 (45.5)	701.6 (43.1)	177.5 (10.9)	8.1 (0.5)	1,628.7 (100.0)
Total (%)	2,725.0 (56.6)	1,613.9 (33.5)	439.1 (9.1)	38.9 (0.8)	4,816.9 (100.0)	3,101.7 (56.7)	1,826.6 (33.4)	496.2 (9.1)	44.0 (0.8)	5,468.5 (100.0)

Notes:

1. Classification of the occupations is based on the Dictionary of Occupation Classification, 1980, Ministry of Labour.

2. Includes professions such as architects, accountants, auditors, engineers, doctors, dentists, veterinary, surgeons, surveyors, lawyers, and also teachers and nurses. For Bumiputra, a substantial proportion of those employed in this occupational group was made up of teachers and nurses. These two groups were estimated to account for about 77,200 or 60.8 per cent of their total in 1980 and 111,300 or 64.5 per cent in 1985.

3. Includes legislative officials, Government administrators and managers.

4. Includes clerical supervisors, Government executive officials, typists, book-keepers, cashiers,

telephone operators, and telegraph operators.

5. Includes managers (wholesale and retail trade), sales supervisors and buyers, technical salesmen, commercial travellers, and manufacturers' agents.

6. Includes managers of catering and lodging services, working proprietors, housekeeping and related service supervisors, cooks, and related workers.

7. Includes plantation managers and supervisors, planters and farmers, agricultural and animal husbandry workers, forestry workers, fishermen, hunters, and related workers.

8. Includes production supervisors and general foremen, miners, quarrymen, well drillers, motor-vehicle drivers, and related workers.

Source: Adapted from Malaysia: Fifth Plan (1986:104).

2.2.3. Income and Economic Disparities

In the period 1979-84 there was an increase in the income of all ethnic groups but the distribution of income indicates that there continued to be wide inequalities among these different ethnic groups (See Table 2-4). This table reveals that the Malays mean monthly household income increased from M\$296 in 1979 to M\$384 in 1984. This figure is still lower than what is received by the Chinese and Indians. The Chinese received an increase from M\$565 in 1979 to M\$678 in 1984, which is the highest amount received among the three ethnic groups. Comparatively, the Indians form an intermediate group between the Malays and Chinese. The Indians experienced an increase in their mean monthly income from M\$455 in 1979 to M\$494 in 1984. The income levels enjoyed by the Indian is higher than that of the Malays but lower than the Chinese.

TABLE 2-4
MEAN HOUSEHOLD INCOMES BY ETHNIC GROUP
IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA, 1970 - 1984

ETHNIC GROUP	MEAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME (\$ Per Month)			AVERAGE ANNUAL GROWTH RATE, 1980-84 (%)
	1970	1979	1984	
MALAY	172	296	384	5.3
CHINESE	394	565	678	5.9
INDIAN	304	455	494	3.7

Source: Adapted from Malaysia: Third Plan (1976:179) and
Malaysia: Fifth Plan (1986:99).

Table 2-5 shows the incidence of poverty and total poor households among the three ethnic groups. In 1970, the table reveals that a substantial amount (64.8%) of the Malays were in the poverty group compared to the Indian (39.2%) and Chinese (26%). Even though the figures shows a decrease for all ethnic groups in 1976, the figure for the Malays still constitute the highest among the three races. With regards to the total poor household in Peninsular Malaysia in 1970, 73.8% were the Malays, 17.2% Chinese and 7.95% Indian. Whereas in 1976, 75.5% were Malays, 15.9% Chinese and 7.8% Indians.

TABLE 2-5

HOUSEHOLDS IN POVERTY BY ETHNIC GROUP
IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA, 1970 and 1976

ETHNIC GROUP	INCIDENCE OF POVERTY (%)		PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	
	1970	1976	1970	1976
MALAY	64.8	46.4	73.8	75.5
CHINESE	26.0	17.4	17.2	15.9
INDIAN	39.2	27.3	7.9	7.8
OTHERS	44.8	33.8	1.1	0.8
TOTAL	49.3	35.1	100.0	100.0

Source: Adapted from Malaysia: Third Plan (1976:180) and
Malaysia: Fourth Plan (1981:46-48).

From Table 2-4 and 2-5, it is obvious that Malaysia is facing serious problems of income and economic disparities among her different ethnic groups. These problems of poverty and economic imbalance in the Malaysian society had been fundamental obstacle to the building of a cohesive nation.

2.2.4. The National Language, Racial Integration and Employment Opportunity.

As mentioned earlier in section 2.2.2, all the different communities in Peninsular Malaysia have their separate languages. However, after the 1969 riot the Government introduced a National Education Policy with the Malays language

or so called "Bahasa Malaysia" became the medium of instruction and national language. Todate, it has been the main language used in government and public sector. Nevertheless, English is still being used as a second language since it is recognized as the international language. Indeed it is being taught and spoken widely in the country and also being used as the main language in commerce and industry.

There is a pressing problem facing the Government in its implementation of the Malay Language as a means for national integration. It is the problem of getting jobs in the private sector among school leavers. It was reported that majority of unemployed quoted "poor standard or inability to communicate in English satisfactorily" as the reason for their failure to get a job in the private sector. The problem arose because of a mismatch between the medium of instruction in the educational system and the work environment. Private sector organisations rely on the use of English in their daily routines, whereas, local education is in Bahasa Malaysia. Poor standards of English were found especially among the Malays (Malaysia: Utusan Malaysia, 12th June 1990).

In the next section, recognising the economic factor as one which influences labour turnover (Moreton, 1974), the state of the Malaysian economy and the emergence of labour turnover

will be discussed.

2.3. The State of the Malaysian Economy and the Emergence of Labour Turnover Problems

The role of economic factors (e.g. prevailing levels of employment, alternative job opportunities, comparative pay rates) as one of the main factors influencing labour turnover cannot be denied (William et al., 1979). A considerable amount of research has been undertaken to investigate this relationship. Corroboration has been found in numerous studies. For instance, William et al., (1979) quoted that an inverse relationship between labour turnover and the level of unemployment has been found in the studies of Rice et al., (1950), Long (1951), Behrend (1953), Tiffin & Phelan (1953), Pearce (1954), Archnecht & Early (1972), Van der Merwe & Miller (1975). William et al., (1979) further noted that in the studies by Lane & Andrew (1955), Industrial Society (1973), and Moreton (1974) it was found that an inverse relationship between inflow of employment opportunities and local turnover rates.

2.3.1. The Malaysian Economy.

Malaysia was already long-established in the agricultural sector when she received her independence in 1957. During the

1950s and 1960s, the country's development relied mainly on her raw commodities such as rubber, tin, palm oil, tropical hardwoods, and pepper, as well petroleum and gas. The labour situation on the other hand, as pointed out by Dunkley (1982) was characterised by labour-surplus, exploitation of workers and under-strength unions with little or no legal protection for the labour force.

In the late sixties and early seventies, however, this picture changed as Malaysia shifted her economic policy towards export-oriented industries. This policy was aimed at achieving the goal of becoming a modern and industrialized nation. Under this policy, the economy was diversified into one based upon an expansion of its manufactured exports. At this time the demand for labour grew despite the high workforce growth rate (Dunkley, 1982).

Between the late 1970's and the middle 1980's, the Malaysian economy experienced substantial changes following the modernization and diversification of the economy in line with the adoption of the New Economic Policy. It further saw rapid expansion of the Malaysian economy with Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth averaging 6.2% per annum (Malaysia: Economic Report 1988d).

In 1987 the growth in the world economy affected the performance of the Malaysia economy by increased growth in demand for exports and increasing commodity prices. It is reported that the real gross domestic product expanded at 5.2% in 1987 and by a further 7.4% in 1988 (Malaysia: Economic report 1988d). This rapid growth in the Malaysian economy, brought about an increase in domestic demand activities, higher public sector investment and a fairly strong external demand for Malaysian products.

As a result of this economic improvement, the employment outlook of the country also marginally improved. In 1988, total employment grew by 3.4% which is just higher than the growth of the labour force of 3.3%. On the otherhand, the unemployment rate decreased to 8.1% compared to 8.2% for 1987 (Malaysia: Economic Report 1988d). The rise in employment opportunities can be observed mainly in the manufacturing sector. In 1987, this sector accounted for 15.7% of the total employment and has expected to increase to 16.4% in 1988 (Malaysia: Economic Report 1988d).

The next section will discuss the progress of industrialisation which has played an important role in the creation of labour problems in Peninsular Malaysia.

2.3.2. Progress of Industrialisation, New Employment Opportunities and Problem of Labour Turnover.

Traditionally, Malaysia has been an agriculturally based society. In the late 1960's, the government's aim was to promote industrial growth (Dunkley, 1982). To achieve this goal, economic development was shifted from import substitution to export promotion. It's main problem, however, was the instability of its export earnings. To overcoming this problem, the Government embarked on a program of industrialisation and economic diversification (Price Waterhouse, 1972). Included in these programmes was the strategy of expanding manufactured exports and raising capital accumulation by borrowing or by foreign investment.

Industrialisation is a relatively new feature of the Malaysian economy. In promoting industrialisation, a programme of developing industrial estates with certain tax exemptions was carried out by the Malaysian Government. This strategy is aimed at encouraging foreign investors. Besides enjoying tax relief, the industrial estates are also provided with good roads, adequate water and electricity supply and in some locations attractive credit terms are offered to the investor for standard factory buildings.

As a developing country relying heavily on foreign

investment by multinationals and on increased manufactured export, Malaysia cannot afford industrial instability. Malaysian government publications for foreign investors emphasise a labour market with low wage levels and cost of living, restrictions on the right to strike, an abundance of natural resources, and export oriented industrial projects (Price Waterhouse, 1972).

The Malaysian government is trying to diversify the economic base, upgrading skills and technology in the industrial development process and this will provide good opportunities for employment to the young and growing population. This industrialisation programme will also build economic foundations as it will lead to an improvement in the export earnings and increase in the share in world trade.

The program of industrialisation, however, has been beneficial to the manufacturing sector. Under the program, high priority has been given to the manufacturing sector in maintaining its role as the leader of economic growth. This sector is expected to play an increasingly important role not only in the Malaysian's gross domestic product but also providing more job opportunities. This positive view is understandable when examined against the substantial number of applications received and approved by MIDA for investment in

the manufacturing sector. For instance, in the first eleven months of 1988, 651 projects with a total proposed capital of \$3,244 million were approved by MIDA. This was 152.4% higher than in 1987. The largest number of applications received in 1987 were for projects in the export - oriented industries such as electrical and electronic, rubber products, textiles and textile products, food manufacturing, wood and wood products (Malaysia: Employment Trends, 1989a). The rapid output growth in manufacturing since the 1970's could be associated with the shifting of domestic industrialisation from import substitution to export-oriented industries.

With regard to employment, this sector has contributed 15.7% of the total jobs in 1987 and is expected to increase to 16.4% after generating 78,600 jobs in 1988. It is expected to account for a total of 999,200 employees in 1988 compared to 920,000 in 1987. This sector recorded the highest rate of employment growth, averaging 7.6% per annum during the decade (Malaysia: MIDA, 1988c).

This very positive performance in the manufacturing sector has created a problem which has only recently become visible. This is the high level of turnover among blue-collar workers. A large number of occupations from an widening range of the faster growing industries is now affected by this problem. The

relatively high levels of employment turnover among these workers encourages organisations to poach staff from related firms by offering better employment terms and conditions (Malaysia: Employment Trends, 1989a). The result, of course, is to add to labour costs.

A survey of labour turnover in 1987/88 revealed that several occupations amongst the blue collar workers in the manufacturing sector had exceeded the national average of employment turnover. It noted that the relatively high rate of voluntary turnover within specific occupations increased as well as the number of occupations and industries affected. In addition, most industrialised states experienced high turnover rates compared to less industrialised states in Peninsular Malaysia.

2.3.3. The Racial Riot and The New Economic Policy.

Economic development in Malaysia following independence had been somewhat uneven, although the rate of economic growth has been very impressive. Because of the government's neglect of the two existing crucial problems namely (1) Widespread poverty and (2) serious racial imbalances in this uneven economic development, racial riots broke out. The problems were aggravated by increasing unemployment and led to the bloody and

infamous racial riots between Malays and Chinese on 13th May 1969 which resulted in hundreds of Malaysian dead.

To Malaysian society, the riots were a symptom of serious discontent and social inequality among the main ethnic groups in Malaysia. Consequently, it should deserve an immediate but careful analysis from the government to redress the racial imbalance that are considered unhealthy. The racial economic imbalance was best illustrated by the income or wealth and occupation or economic activity distribution (Refer to section 2.2.2 and 2.2.3 of this chapter).

In light of the danger of this incident, an immediate response by the government to what was presumed a political manifestation of a crucial economic ill was the start of "The New Economic Policy (NEP)" in 1971. The objectives of this policy was to attain national unity through the two-pronged strategy namely:

- (a) eradicating poverty by raising income levels and increasing employment opportunities for all Malaysians, regardless of race;

- (b) accelerating the process of restructuring Malaysian society to correct economic imbalances, so as to reduce and eventually eliminate the identification of (ethnic origin) with economic function (Malaysia: Second Plan, 1971:1).

Among the strategy to achieve the second prong of reducing

economic imbalance through restructuring of society, the NEP requires all organisations to design and implement policies that leads to occupational levels reflecting the ethnic balance of the country (Malaysia, 1973). The objective of this requirement is to increase the creation of a commercial and industrial community among the Malays in order to that within a period of twenty years (1990), the Malays will manage at least 30% of the total commercial and and industrial activities in all categories and scales of operations. In practice, though there are no particular laws with reference to reservation of quotas in respect of race in the employment, the common perception among industries today is that they should hire at least 50% Malays in their workforce on all levels of job hierarchy (Alagandram, 1977).

The basic objective of NEP is to achieve national unity and it has to be attained by the target year 1990. It's success is based on the judgement that the Bumiputra should acquire at least 30% of the wealth ownership in commerce and industry and employment should reflect the ethnic composition of the state i.e. targets of 30% Malay, 40% "Other Malaysians" and 30% Foreign in 1990.

The implementation of NEP, however, has been misconceived by the Non-Bumiputra and Bumiputra alike. Basically, the Non-

Bumiputra were not satisfied and were not happy with this policy. The Non-Bumiputras were critical of the allowance of the distributed quota of 30% participation of bumiputra in business and commercial activities. It repudiated them of their existing share and they therefore tried to resist the NEP which was seen as discriminating against them. However, for the ruling party, especially after the 1969 riots, the launching of NEP was fair and seemed to be fundamental to national unity. Its ultimate goal was to redistribute equity participation, employment and incomes among the races. It is believed that such a policy might reduce and eventually eliminate the identification of race with economic function. When employment reflect the ethnic composition of the state the problem of ethnic prejudices and national cohesion will finally be solved.

CHAPTER THREE:

THE MALAYSIAN LABOUR SCENE

3.0. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to review the labour characteristics and development of the labour force and the practices of employment in Peninsular Malaysia. It is divided into four parts; the first begins with an examination of the population, labour force, and employment growth. It is followed by an overview of the demographic characteristics of the labour force. The third introduces the labour market and manpower development. The fourth and final part, presents employment conditions and work environments in Peninsular Malaysia. This information, will demonstrate the past and present employment practices normally adopted in Malaysian organisations. This approach will enable the reader to understand the later discussion of factors influencing voluntary labour turnover in this country.

First, the opening part of this chapter will present the population, labour force and employment growth in Malaysia.

3.1. Population, Labourforce and Employment Growth

3.1.1. Population Growth, 1986-1990

There is frequently a link between population growth and the economic and social development of a particular country. For instance, a rapid population growth will lead to a high need for the creation of new job opportunities. On the other hand, a slow population growth with high growth of employment will lead to labour shortage in the labour market.

As mentioned in chapter two, Peninsular Malaysia has a total population of about 14.6 million: This is significantly higher than the total population of 12.9 million in 1985. As shown in Table 3-1, the average annual growth rate in the population in Peninsular Malaysia was 2.4% per annum during 1985 to 1986 lower than the 1981-85 growth rate of 2.5%. This growth rate, however, shows a constant rate from 1985 till 1990 - see Table 3-1 (Malaysia: Fifth Plan, 1986). The increased population growth in Peninsular Malaysia since 1981 suggests a favourable one in terms of providing adequate manpower in order to attract foreign investors to invest in the country.

TABLE 3-1

POPULATION OF PENINSULAR MALAYSIA:
AVERAGE ANNUAL GROWTH RATE, 1980-1990 (PERCENTAGE)

1980	1985	1990	Average annual growth rate_		
'000	'000	'000	1981-85	1985-86	1986-90
11,473.0	12,968.8	14,605.2	2.5	2.4	2.4

Source: Malaysia: Fifth Plan (1986:129).

3.1.2. Labour Force and Employment Growth

The total labour force in the country shows an increase between the years 1980 and 1990. From 5.1 million in 1980 it increased to 5.9 million in 1985 at an average growth rate of 3.0% per annum. From 1986 to 1990 it was estimated to reach 6.8 million, an increase of 2.8% per annum. The labour force is growing at a faster rate than Malaysia's population in general - as revealed in the Fifth Malaysian Plan (1986). The high growth of labour force rate is due to the increased rate in working ages¹ and overall female labour force participation rates. The average annual growth rate in the population in this period is estimated at 2.4% per annum whereas the working age

¹ "Working age" is defined in the Fifth Malaysia Plan (1986:136) as "those in the age group 15 - 64".

population is estimated to grow at 2.7% per annum (Refer to Table 3-4 and 3-5).

As a result of the investment boom in Peninsular Malaysia, employment prospects show an improvement after late 1986. This is related to the government's strategies of promoting employment on the basis of industrialisation. The influx of investment, especially from Taiwan and Singapore, provides new employment opportunities in the labour market. During the year 1985-90, 880,800 additional entrants will join the labour market producing a total of 6.8 million of the labour force. Most of them are school leavers who seek employment for the first time (Malaysia: MIDA, 1988c).

In 1988, it was reported that the total in employment grew at 3.4% whereas the labour force grew at 3.3% (Malaysia: Economic Report, 1988d). Consequently, the unemployment rate decreased to 8.1% of the labour force. As employment opportunities improved in Peninsular Malaysia shortages in the labour market started to appear.

3.1.3. Ethnic Composition

The annual population growth rate in Peninsular Malaysia varies significantly among the different ethnic groups. The

Malay population increases at an average annual growth rate of 3.0% during the period 1986-90. For the Chinese it increases at 1.5% and for the Indian at 1.9%. The higher fertility rate of the Malays has enlarged the proportion of Malays in the population from 56.5% in 1985 to 58.1% in 1990 (See Table 3-2). This further reduces the proportion for the Non-Malays. These variations in ethnic population growth rates are expected to continue and widen over the coming years (Malaysia: Fifth Plan, 1986).

TABLE 3-2

POPULATION OF PENINSULAR MALAYSIA BY ETHNIC GROUP:
AVERAGE ANNUAL GROWTH RATE, 1980-1990 (PERCENTAGE)

ETHNIC GROUP	1980		1985		1990	
	-----		-----		-----	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
MALAY	6,324.4	2.9	7,325.6	2.7	8,493.0	3.0
CHINESE	3,894.3	1.7	4,248.4	2.0	4,579.2	1.5
INDIAN	1,178.9	2.1	1,311.9	2.3	1,441.1	1.9
OTHERS	75.4	1.9	82.9	2.1	91.9	2.1

Source: Malaysia: Fifth Plan (1986:129).

The ethnic composition of each state in Peninsular Malaysia is varied. The majority of the non-Malays like to live in the most industrialised states of the country whereas the Malays are the dominant group in less industrialised states. The breakdown of the population by ethnicity for every state can be seen in Table 3-3. Most of the three races can be found in five of the states in Peninsular Malaysia. These states are

Penang, Selangor, Johore, Perak and Federal Territory. The population of the other states is predominantly Malay with small proportion of Chinese, Indian and others ethnic groups.

TABLE 3-3

POPULATION BY STATE ('000):
ETHNIC COMPOSITION IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA.

STATE	MALAY	CHINESE	INDIAN	OTHERS	TOTAL
PERAK	808	737	256	4	1,805
JOHOR	898	629	108	2	1,638
SELANGOR	671	567	269	8	1,515
KEDAH	802	208	87	18	1,116
FEDERAL TERRITORY	339	514	141	10	1,003
KELANTAN	830	48	7	9	894
PULAU PINANG	312	521	109	11	954
PAHANG	532	210	55	2	799
NEGERI SEMBILAN	265	210	97	2	574
TERENGGANU	510	27	3	1	541
MELAKA	249	177	36	3	465
PERLIS	116	24	4	4	148

Source: Malaysia: Information Year Book (1989c:18)

The next part of the chapter looks at the demographic characteristics of Malaysian manpower in relation to labour turnover. The size of the available workforce is determined by a variety of demographic, social and economic factors. The total population, its rate of increase or decrease, the numbers in the different ethnic groups, working age, the sex compositions and the educational structures determine the number of persons who will seek employment.

It is important to note that any discussion of the

demographic characteristics of each race is limited by a lack of data. It is for this reason that outdated data is used.

3.2. Demographic Characteristics

3.2.1. Skill Structure and Working Age.

Table 3-4 reveals variations in growth rates among various age groups. The population below 15 years of age shows a decline in proportion from 37.3% in 1985 to 36.0% in 1990. Similarly, for the age group 15-24 there is a decline from 21.0% to 19.8%. However, for the age group of 25 and above, it shows an increase in their proportion from 21.5% in 1985 to 22.8% in 1990 (See Table 3-4).

TABLE 3-4

PENINSULAR MALAYSIA: POPULATION SIZE
AND AGE STRUCTURE, 1980-90.

AGE GROUP	1980		1985		1990		AVERAGE ANNUAL GROWTH RATE(%)	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%		
							81-85	86-90
00-14	4,484.0	39.1	4,835.1	37.3	5,263.2	36.0	1.5	1.7
15-24	2,436.9	21.2	2,726.3	21.0	2,891.0	19.8	2.2	1.2
25-39	2,301.2	20.1	2,789.2	21.5	3,333.7	22.8	3.8	3.6
40-54	1,310.0	11.4	1,535.3	11.8	1,833.3	12.6	3.2	3.5
55-64	515.7	4.5	605.6	4.7	721.3	4.9	3.2	3.5
65 +	425.2	3.7	477.3	3.7	562.7	3.9	2.3	3.3

Source: Malaysia: Fifth Plan (1986:130).

The total population of Malaysia was about 17.9 millions in 1990 of which the working age group was expected to grow at 2.7% per annum, to a total of 6.8 million during the period

1986-90. From Table 3-5 below, it is observed that the average annual growth rate for the new labour market entrants aged 15-19 declines at 0.3% per annum during the period 1986-90. Their proportion in the labour force decreases from 10.9% in 1985 to 9.4% in 1990. Equally, the age group 20-34 also shows a decline in their average annual growth rate of 2.8%. Age groups 35-44 and 55-64, however, show an increase in their average annual growth rate but at a lower percentage rate (See table 3-5).

TABLE 3-5

PENINSULAR MALAYSIA: LABOUR FORCE GROWTH, 1980-90

AGE GROUP	1980		1985		1990		AVERAGE ANNUAL GROWTH RATE(%) 81-85 86-90	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%		
15-19	556.7	13.1	533.6	10.9	525.6	9.4	-0.8	-0.3
20-34	2,044.6	48.0	2,427.8	49.5	2,780.8	49.6	3.5	2.8
35-44	831.3	19.5	992.7	20.2	1,198.4	21.4	3.6	3.8
45-54	559.3	13.1	654.1	13.3	756.2	13.5	3.2	2.9
55-64	267.9	6.3	299.4	6.1	342.3	6.1	2.2	2.7
TOTAL	4,259.8	100.	4,907.6	100.	5,603.3	100.	2.9	2.7

Source: Malaysia: Fifth Plan (1986:130).

Generally, the first entrance in the job for the production and related workers category are among the age group 15 to 24 years old. As reported by the Malaysia Manpower Department (1987b) most job seekers who are successfully placed for this category are those with an average age of 15 - 24. In 1985-1988, about half of those who registered at this department and are successfully placed in appropriate vacancies

were from the 20-24 age group, followed by those in the 15-19 age group (Malaysia: Manpower Department, 1987b).

Similarly, a consultant's report (Malaysia: JSEC, 1989d) in Johore reveals that about half (50.1%) of the industrial workers are less than 25 years old. The average age for the workers is about 27 years. Among the ethnic groups, the Malays have the lowest average age with about 26 years, the Chinese with 27.6 years and the Indian with 26.6 years. In Penang, a study by Othman and Abdullah (1983) shows that about a third of their respondents are among 30-39 age group, a quarter between 20-29 and the rest are over 40 years old.

3.2.2. Skill Structure and Sex Composition

Table 3-6 shows the Malaysian population by sex. Among the Malays there are more females than males, but the picture was reversed among the non-Malays.

Table 3-6:

Population by Sex Ratio, 1980 (percentage ratios in brackets)

Peninsular Malaysia	Male	Female
Malays	49.6	50.4
Chinese	50.1	49.9
Indians	51.3	48.7
Others	51.4	48.6

Source: Malaysia: Information YearBook (1989c:19).

Table 3-7 below shows the distribution of employment in the manufacturing sector by sex groups. It is clear that amongst the skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled workers who are directly employed there is a slight majority of females. Local reports also reveal similar patterns for males and females in Johore (Malaysia: JSEC, 1989d) and Penang state (Othman and Abdullah, 1983).

3.2.3. Skill Structure and Marital Status

The findings of most studies on marital status in relation to production and related workers are contradictory. For instance, in their study, Othman and Abdullah (1983) found that 82% of their respondents were married and 16% were single workers. Whereas the consultant's report shows that 65% of their total workers were single. Additionally, in the same consultant report similar patterns of marital status were also found among each race. According to this report, this finding was expected because most high labour intensive industries would prefer to employ young female workers (Malaysia: JSEC, 1989d).

Table: 3-7

Employment in the Manufacturing Industries 1986/1987

Category of Workers	Total Malaysian and Non-Citizens					
	1986			1987		
	Total*	Male	female	Total*	Male	Female
Total Paid Employees (Full Time)	468,671	249,007	219,664	507,102	261,564	245,556
1. Managerial and Professional						
i) Professional	10,197	9,348	849	10,713	9,727	986
ii) Non-Professional	10,618	9,457	1,161	10,884	9,657	1,227
2. Technical and Supervisory	43,223	35,914	7,309	46,117	38,186	7,931
3. Clerical & Related Occupation	40,405	18,041	22,364	42,060	18,725	23,335
4. General Workers	24,472	19,896	4,576	25,479	20,685	4,794
5. Workers Directly Employed						
i) Skilled	122,956	50,604	72,352	129,765	50,945	78,820
ii) Semi-skilled	51,785	27,722	24,063	58,936	29,471	29,465
iii) Unskilled	120,974	52,751	68,223	138,932	57,962	80,970
6. Workers Employed through Labour Contractors						
i) Skilled	13,023	9,219	3,804	16,923	9,744	7,179
ii) Semi-skilled	12,322	7,331	4,991	11,154	7,213	3,941
iii) Unskilled	18,696	8,724	9,972	16,139	9,231	6,908

Note: * Total number of persons engaged during December 1986 and 1987 or the last pay period 1986 and 1987

Source: Malaysia: Ministry of Human Resources (1986b:25).

3.2.4. Skill Structure and Education Background

In Peninsular Malaysia, the government has put great emphasis on education since independence. The purpose is to provide a trained and skilled workforce to work in the labour

market in the future. The education system started with primary school (standard one to six). Those who pass then proceed to secondary school (form one to upper six). During form three (at the age of 15), the students have to sit a Lower Certificate of Education. After passing this exam, they will proceed to forms four and five. Generally at the age of seventeen (form 5) they have to sit another exam known as the Malaysian Certificate of Education. Corresponding to form four and five is the technical and vocational education provided by most vocational schools. Those who pass have to spend two more years in lower and upper six. If they pass the Higher School Certificate (upper six) with good results, they can then proceed to university studies. Those who fail in each stage are either to continue their study through private school or end their student life by entering the job market.

With regard to education background for production and related workers, it seems that the majority have lower secondary education. A consultant's report in Johore noted that 41% of the production and related workers are among those with lower secondary education, followed by 34% with upper secondary education. Primary education accounts for 16.5%, 7% with tertiary education and about 1% with no formal education. There are some graduate workers but most of them are probably unemployed graduates who have no other choice but to undertake

such jobs as temporary employment. There are similar distribution levels of education among the various races except that the non-Malays have a higher proportion with tertiary education compared to the Malays (Malaysia: JSEC, 1989d).

3.3. Labour Market and Manpower Development

3.3.1. Job Availability and Vacancies

The remarkable success of the Malaysian economy after recovery from the 1985-86 recession indicates a turning point in the progress of the employment situation in this country. Private investment in most parts of the country has created an unexpectedly high need for both skilled and unskilled workers in most industries. The investment boom generated a rate of job creation which is higher than the rate of new jobseekers entering the labour market (Malaysia: Employment Trend, 1989a).

Like previous years, most of the investment projects approved come from the private sector. It is, therefore, not surprising that the main contributor to job creation has been the manufacturing sector beside agriculture, forestry and fishing. In contrast, the public sector in this country does not contribute much to employment growth (Malaysia: Economic Report, 1988d). (There is a more comprehensive discussion of the manufacturing sector in section 2.3.2 of chapter two). This

view is based on the large number of investment projects approved by MIDA for this sector (See Table 3-8). Upon completion, these projects are estimated to increase their proportion of total employment (See Table 3-9).

TABLE 3-8
INDUSTRIAL PROJECTS GRANTED APPROVAL BY INDUSTRY,
1986 AND 1987.

Industry	Number		Potential Employment	
	1986	1987	1986	1987
Food Manufacturing	67	28	6,676	2,064
Beverages & Tobacco	3	3	154	392
Textiles products	32	44	4,576	6,770
Wood Products	14	22	1,503	6,663
Furniture & Fixture	3	2	251	286
Paper, Printing & Publishing	10	13	679	1,082
Chemicals Products	29	15	1,645	848
Petroleum & Coal	6	-	359	-
Rubber Products	20	56	1,981	7,762
Plastic Products	22	9	948	1,406
Non-Metallic Mineral Products	28	8	1,444	876
Basic Metal Products	11	21	881	1,757
Fabricated Metal Products	36	11	1,626	954
Machinery Manufacturing	11	7	1,421	588
Electrical & Electronic Products	56	71	9,201	24,666
Transport Equipment	85	15	5,614	1,892
Scientific & Measuring Equipments	4	-	405	-
Miscellaneous	10	8	866	1,773
TOTAL	447	8	40,230	59,779

Source: Malaysia: MIDA Annual Report (1987a:12)

Table 3-9 discloses that some changes in the proportions of the labour force employed in various sectors occurred between 1987 and 1988. The most significant change appeared to be the decline in the average annual growth rate of the labour force employed in agriculture, forestry, and fishery, where it

declined from 3.8% in 1987 to 1.7% in 1988. In contrast, the annual growth rate of the labour force employed in manufacturing registered an increase during the same period. Table 3-9, shows that the manufacturing sector has generated a significantly large number of new jobs in the country compared to the other sectors. It estimated to account for a total of 1,012,600 workers (16.4% of the total employment) compared to 920,600 (15.7%) in 1987.

TABLE 3-9

MALAYSIA: EMPLOYMENT BY SECTOR (1987/88).
(in 000')

Sector	1987	1988	Average Annual Growth Rate (%)	
			1987	1988
Agriculture, Forestry, Livestock, & Fishing	1,876	1,908.3	3.8	1.7
Mining and Quarrying	36.7	37.2	0.5	1.4
Manufacturing	920.6	1,012.6	7.0	10.0
Construction	354.6	356.4	-7.2	0.5
Electricity, Gas & Water Supply	44.2	45.0	2.1	1.8
Transport, Storage and Communication	254.0	261.1	2.2	2.8
Wholesale, Retail Trade & Hotel and Restaurant	1,017.4	1,070.3	4.6	5.2
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate & Buss. Services	205.5	211.6	1.1	3.0
Government Services	835.9	844.3	0.9	1.0
Other Services	335.9	340.7	3.5	1.4

Source: Malaysia: Ministry of Human Resources (1987b:19)

The positive development of private investment in

manufacturing is also shown by the number of vacancies reported in this sector. In the first five months of 1989, there were a total of 12,220 vacancies reported to the Manpower Department of the government. This is an increase of 51.9% over the corresponding period of 1988 (8,047 vacancies). The sector's share of the total reported vacancies rose from 55.0% to 60.8% (Malaysia: Employment Trend, 1989b).

TABLE 3-10

VACANCIES REPORTED TO MANPOWER DEPARTMENT:
BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS, 1987-89.

OCCUPATIONAL GROUP	1987		1988		JAN-MAY 1989	
	VACANCIES	% CHANGE	VACANCIES	% CHANGE	VACANCIES	% CHANGE
Production workers, Transport Equipment & Related workers	17,695	15.8	32,858	85.7	14,152	56.2
Clerical & Related workers	4,385	5.1	6,044	37.8	2,896	27.4
Sales Workers	2,617	-19.1	2,488	-4.9	833	-29.1
Services workers	2,522	47.9	2,877	14.1	770	-31.6
Others	3,238	-46.4	2,611	-19.4	1,460	47.6

Note: % change refers to annualised rate of change.

Source: Malaysia: Employment Trend, 1989b.

Job vacancies, however, have largely favoured production and related workers. Here the rate of job creation has continued to be significantly higher in 1989. During the first five months of 1989, a total of 14,152 vacancies for these groups of workers were reported to the Manpower Department out

of a total of 20,111 vacancies compared to 32,858 for the whole year of 1988 (See Table 3-10) which indicates a growing trend.

3.3.2. Shortage of Manpower and the Labour Turnover Problem.

A sizeable number of job vacancies for production and related workers reported to the Manpower Department, reflected, the existence of a manpower shortage in the country. Eventhough, labour shortage is a comparatively new phenomenon to this country, its effects are enormous, destructive and can consequently be a barrier for further economic growth (Hoo et al., 1991). Figures released by the Malaysian Industrial Development Authority as cited in Hoo et al., (1991), demonstrate that labour shortage is the main problem leading to inability to carry out 21.1% of projects approved in the year 1981 to 1989.

According to Hoo et al., (1991), the labour shortage phenomenon in Malaysia is caused by several factors; the extensive growth in industrialisation, migrations of Malaysians to other countries, the mismatch of supply from educational institutions, and the high mobility of labour in the face of unattractive wages and conditions.

For whatever reasons, this unfavourable development adds

to the competitive nature of the labour market in the country. Industries in the industrialised states which were unable to offer competitive wages and employment conditions were reported to have difficulty in attracting a sufficient number of production workers (Hoo et. al., 1991). The total percentage of industry encountering inadequate labour is displayed in Table 3-11. Additionally, figures released by the chairman of the Penang Free Trade Zone Companies' Association illustrated that there was a shortage of 12,000 workers in Penang alone. Other surveys carried out by the Federation of Malaysian Manufacturing reveal that in Penang and Negeri Sembilan, 75% of those companies' responses indicated a shortage of workers (Hoo et al., 1991). Respondents encountering inadequate labour conditions in other states can be seen in Table 3-12.

The problem of labour shortage has been questioned by some researchers (Hoo et al., 1991). In commenting upon the figures released by the Manpower Department with regard to the unemployment rate in Malaysia these researchers claim that Malaysia has not yet reached the full employment stage. This is due to the fact that there are still 200,000 people who are jobless and could be mobilised. This claim seems to support an earlier statement made by Anshar (1991), who cited similar figures for the unemployed. According to this author, the high level of the jobless population are related to the

unwillingness of several companies to implement certain measures such as the provision of attractive pay, accomodation, location of production facilities and childcare centres at the workplace.

Table 3-11:

Respondents Encountering Inadequate Labour: By Industry Group

Industry Group	"Yes" Count	No of Responses
Textile	5	5
Rubber	7	8
Paper, Printing and Publishing	5	6
Plastics	6	8
Non-Metalic Mineral	8	12
Food Manufacturing	10	16
Fabricated Metal	3	5
Transport Equipment	3	5
Electrical and Electronics	8	15
Chemical	4	13
Basic Metal	1	2
Beverage	1	2
Petroleum and Coal	0	2
Tobacco	0	2
Leather	0	1
Wood including Furniture	1	1
Machinery Manufacturing	1	1
Scientific & Measuring Equipment	0	1
Miscellaneous	3	3
Affiliate Member	1	2
Total	67	110

Source: Hoo et al., (1991), "Where have all the workers gone?", Business Section, The Star, Malaysia, Friday, Febuary 1, pp.2-3.

The labour shortage problem has further led to serious tightening of the labour market in most parts of the country. As a result it causes a high rate of voluntary labour turnover

among industries, particularly, the firms offering less attractive employment terms and conditions. The level of voluntary turnover was attributed partly to the great need for these workers and in turn encouraging the workers to demand a more favourable provision of employment terms and conditions. Malaysia Employment Trend (1989a) reported that the industries with the highest turnover rates were Textiles, Wood and Wood Products and Electrical and Electronic products.

Table 3-12:

Respondents Encountering Inadequate Labour: By State

State	"Yes" Count	No of Responses
Penang	6	8
Negeri Sembilan	3	4
Johor	13	18
Malacca	5	7
Perak	6	10
Selangor	26	45
F.Territory K.Lumpur	7	15
Kedah	1	1
Perlis	0	1
Sarawak	0	1
Malaysia	67	110

Source: Hoo et al., (1991), "Where have all the workers gone?", Business Section, The Star, Malaysia, Friday, February 1, pp.2-3.

In confronting problems of obtaining enough workers to step up their production in this competitive labour market, several costly efforts have been undertaken. Hoo et al., (1991) reported that fierce competitions for workers can be seen from

full-page, full-colour recruitment advertisements published in national dailies, armed with vans and loud hailers which go into the villages in order to attract the unemployed young people to their organisations. Other methods adopted to attract the unemployed were the use of huge banners, hanging across the fences of factories, displaying their attractive wages and perks. Some organisations even provide monetary incentives for current workers to persuade their friends or relatives to join. However, while a serious labour shortage confronted most companies, it was reported that recruitment advertising agencies were making tremendous profits from their work on designing advertisements to attract workers. An unofficial report as quoted in Hoo et al., (1991) estimated that advertising expenditure amounted to M\$50 million in 1990, and were forecasted to maintain similar figures this year.

3.3.3. Manpower Development

Rapid growth in the manufacturing sector results in demand for large numbers of workers with new skills mainly in the area of production, robotics and computer control. The relatively tight labour market has persuaded the government to take suitable measures to improve skills and to ensure an adequate supply of these workers. Recently, therefore, the needs and development of skilled manpower have been identified seriously

under the Industrial Master Plan and the Fifth Malaysia Plan (Malaysia: Labour and Manpower Report, 1987b).

Before the introduction of IMP, the training of skilled workers was conducted by various Ministries such as the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Youth and Sport, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Rural Development through their training institutions. The total number of registered trainees and the scope of the courses conducted in each institution, however, were limited and not well coordinated. This limited output allied to the rapid growth in the manufacturing sector with its strong demand for skilled and semi-skilled manpower has led to labour shortages. The output of skilled and semi-skilled manpower from these institutions can be seen from Table 3-13.

Since the supply of manpower is still a problem to the country and in order to ensure that the supply of manpower could meet the demand, the government has taken measures to improve the supply. A thorough review of the country's educational and training requirements is under study. This focusses especially in human resources development after considering the opinion suggesting that there was a mismatch in the educational system in the country and the demands of the economy (Malaysia: Labour and Manpower Report, 1987b). As a

result, a significant expansion of training centres and programmes was made to increase the supply of skilled manpower. For instance, an addition of three secondary vocational schools, three polytechnics, three Industrial Training Institutes (ITI), and one MARA Vocational Institute (IKM) took place. With the establishment of these institutions, the output of skilled and semi-skilled manpower increased by 38.4% (Malaysia: Fifth Plan, 1986).

Table 3-13:

MALAYSIA: ENROLMENT AND OUTPUT OF SKILLED AND SEMI-SKILLED
MANPOWER FROM PUBLIC TRAINING INSTITUTIONS, 1980-90.

Institution	Enrolment			Increase (%)		Output						
	1980	1985	1990	81-85	86-90	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	81-85	86-90
Vocational schools	12,675	13,883	35,455	9.5	155.4	8,062	10,605	10,943	13,827	16,658	32,664	60,095
Technical schools	5,370	6,230	6,080	16.0	-2.4	2,960	3,040	3,040	3,040	3,040	14,433	15,120
Youth Training Centers	975	750	1,203	-23.1	60.4	810	837	851	852	821	3,792	4,171
Industrial Training Institutes	1,472	2,843	10,330	93.1	263.4	3,283	4,225	5,716	6,549	7,085	7,829	26,858
MARA Vocational Institutes	4,198	4,801	6,647	14.4	38.5	2,698	3,004	3,340	3,872	4,336	10,794	17,250
Polytechnics	2,030	5,373	11,995	164.7	123.3	2,003	1,991	2,753	3,203	3,625	5,663	13,575

Source: Adapted from Malaysia: Fifth Plan (1986:153).

Regardless of the high rates of expansion of output from skill training institutions, the shortage of skilled and semi-

skilled workers was expected to continue as a national problem in the 1990s. Initiatives were, therefore, taken by various Ministries to set up new training institutions and programmes in order to ensure that there was an adequate supply of skilled and semi-skilled manpower in line with the requirements of industry. The Ministry of Youth and Sports, for instance, has set up an Advance Vocational Training Center in Sepang, Selangor so as to meet the demand for highly skilled labour such as tool and die makers and skilled mechanics. Besides, the Manpower Department, the Ministry of Labour have also set up the Center for Instructor and Advance Skilled Training (CIAST) which puts emphasis on hi-tech and engineering training. Apart from these, the government also established the National Training Council (NVTC). Some of the objectives are:

- i) To coordinate planning and development activities and programmes on vocational and industrial training conducted by public bodies
- ii) To encourage, assist and develop skilled and semi-skilled vocational training programmes; and
- iii) To determine the level of skills acquired commensurate with the level of technology development (Malaysia: Labour and Manpower Report, 1987b:35).

Besides the establishment of these training institutions, on-site training and in-service training are also partly responsible for the supply of skilled and semi-skilled workers. Several in-service training programmes are being carried out by public sector agencies such as the National Electricity Board

(NEB), the Public Works Departments (PWD), the Telecommunications Department and The Standards and Industrial Research Institute of Malaysia (SIRIM). These public sector skill training efforts are also being complemented by the private sector in providing in-service and on-the-job training. This, however, is to cater for their own needs. The strong support from the private sector in training is also evident from their involvement in the development of trade standards and syllabi for industrial training together with the Manpower Development Board and The National Industrial Training and Trade Certification Board (NITTCB) (Malaysia; Fifth Plan, 1986).

In line with the high demand for semi-skilled and skilled manpower, and considering the implication of labour shortage to the country's development, the government intends to put greater emphasis on human resources development during the fifth plan period. The development of skills will be the centre of attention in human resources development and is especially adjusted to meet the skill needs of the economy. In addition, a more co-ordinated and effective approach to manpower development planning will also be highlighted (Malaysia: Fifth Plan, 1986).

3.4. Employment Conditions and the Work Environments

The relative lack of data on employment conditions and environments and its influence on voluntary labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia, leads to difficulties in making a clear statement of the situation. However there are a few studies by local researchers such as Dunkley (1982), Othman and Abdullah (1983), Daud (1985), Yun et al., (1986), Hoo et al., (1991) and Anshar (1991) which are available but not directly relevant to this study².

3.4.1. Wages.

Comparatively, wages in Peninsular Malaysia are much lower than in many other Asian countries (See Table 3-14). Since the wages paid in most parts of the country are still low, a number of skilled workers are reported as migrating to other countries which offer far better wages. In Singapore, the new open door policy to recruit foreign workers has attracted some skilled Malaysian workers (Malaysia: The Star, 29th April 1988a). Similarly, Hoo et al., (1991) recorded that 17,000 Malaysian skilled workers were found to be working illegally in Taiwan,

². All the studies mentioned above do not directly study labour turnover issues. But to some extent their discussion can be used indirectly or as an analogy to explain the issue of labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia.

and 1,865 in Japan. Thousands of Skilled Malaysian workers were also reported to be working in Singapore, Australia, New Zealand, and the Middle East where better wages are offered.

Low rates of pay for labour stem from previous government policy. Dunkley (1982) described that in the 1970s, Malaysian government policy was to emphasise foreign investment in the country's economic development. To support this policy, it took the risk of encouraging a low level wages. This, however, resulted in the exploitation of Malaysian labour through low income.

TABLE 3-14:

COMPARISON ON WAGES BETWEEN ASIAN COUNTRIES

WAGES PER HOUR IN SEMI-CONDUCTOR INDUSTRY: FOR WOMEN WORKERS (IN U.S.DOLLAR) ³		
COUNTRY	WAGE	WAGE AND FRINGE BENEFITS
Hong Kong	\$ 1.15	\$ 1.20
Singapore	.79	1.25
South Korea	.63	2.00
Taiwan	.53	.80
Malaysia	.48	.60
Philippines	.48	.50
Indonesia	.19	.35

Source: Yun, Hing Ai and Talib, Rokiah,
Women and Work in Malaysia (1986:11).

In supporting his statement, Dunkley gave a clear example

³. The exchange rate of Malaysian ringgit (M\$) to U.S. Dollar (US\$) was approximately M\$2.19 = US\$1.00 in 1979 and M\$2.60 = US\$1.00 in 1986.

of wage exploitation by presenting a case from 1979 in a Japanese Multinational in the Sungai Way Free Trade Zone near Kuala Lumpur. In this multinational, the unskilled females who worked 48 hours a week on shifts were paid between 67 cents and M\$2 an hour. These workers were paid low wages and worked in an unhealthy industrial environment. Hence, Dunkley pointed out that in 1980, the union leader had claimed the electronic firm to have exploited these workers through inappropriate wages, and often discharged workers without justification.

Up to now, in Peninsular Malaysia, there is no statutory minimum wage rate for manufacturing and processing industries. The minimum wage rates are only furnished for retail, hotel catering and cinema trades. Without a statutory minimum wage rate for industrial workers wage rates have varied from industry to industry. MIDA (1988c) indicates that wages in Malaysia are generally determined by market forces and the negotiations between the workers and the employers through the collective bargaining process.

Price Waterhouse (1972) reported that in the manufacturing sector, wage rates varied from industry to industry and also according to areas. For instance, wages are generally higher in urban industrialised areas, such as Kuala Lumpur and Penang. The rate varies from US\$ 2.05 a day upwards according to

industry and skills level. However, the average wage rate for factory labour is M\$8 to M\$9 per day for unskilled labour, M\$12 to M\$16 per day for semi-skilled labour and between M\$15 and M\$39 per day for skilled labour. Today, wages offered in some industries in the country are much lower than expected by workers. Anshar (1991) claims that most workers are willing to be unemployed rather than receive less attractive wages paid by some industries.

In many respects, the 1987-1989 period appeared to be a favourable one for labour (Malaysia: Manpower Department, 1987b). Together with new job opportunities in the competitive labour market, the economic recovery, in the country made for an increase of wages. It appears that most industries, which have suffered from the shortage of labour, were putting pressure on the employers to reward workers with a better wage rate. In this entire period, data covering selected industries in the manufacturing sector showed that wages increased steadily but varied between sex, occupations, industries and locations of enterprises (Malaysia: Fifth Plan, 1986). In a study reported by the local newspaper (Malaysia: The Star, 30th March 1988e) it was shown that the monthly wages for electronic workers had risen from \$198 in 1980 to M\$282 in 1983 and M\$369 in 1985. These monthly wages were expected to continue in the period of 1987-1989. The high wages offered by electronic and

other sectors have also influences workers to "job hop" to these industries. Factories which offered less competitive wages were reported to face shortages of skilled and semi skilled manpower, such factories were especially from the garment industries (Malaysia: The Star, 29th April 1988a). Several small factories in particular industries were also facing problems of high turnover. It was reported that multinational companies offered far better wages compared to small factories which resulted in poaching workers from other factories (Malaysia: The Star, 6th February 1991b). The industries in the manufacturing sector that enjoyed an increase in wage rates include food processing, tobacco, wood-based and electronic industries (Malaysia: Economic Report, 1988d).

With regards to the distribution of average salary or wages received by various ethnic groups, a consultant's report shows that the Malays earn a marginally lower salary than the non-Malays in all categories - refer to table 3-15 (Malaysia: JSEC, 1989d). Similarly, The Industrial Workers Survey as quoted in the above consultant's report indicates that the Chinese received higher earning in all skilled categories compared to the Malays.

TABLE 3-15:
AVERAGE MONTHLY SALARY/WAGES
BY TYPE OF INDUSTRY AND SKILL CATEGORY OF WORKERS

Type of Industry	Category of Worker			
	Skilled and Semi-skilled		Unskilled and General Workers	
	Malay	Non-Malay	Malay	Non-Malay
Food, Tobacco and Beverages	413	411	303	297
Textile, Wearing Apparel and Leather	434	411	294	287
Sawmill, Wood and Wood Products				
Including Furniture	422	492	299	318
Paper, Printing and Publishing	412	454	283	339
Rubber, Plastic and Chemical Products	438	435	274	307
Non-Metallic Mineral Products	396	494	358	389
Basic Metal Products	446	595	343	288
Fabricated Metal Products, Machinery				
Electrical and Electronic Industry	404	469	267	286
Other Industries Not Elsewhere Classified	310	369	261	274
Weighted Average	415	437	288	306

Source: Adapted from Consultant's Report on Manpower Needs in Johore
- Johore State Economic Corporation (1989d:4-6).

3.4.2. Hourly work and Overtime Work

In Peninsular Malaysia, most industrial organisations made demands on workers to work 48 hours on 6 working days. However in some cases, because of trade union pressure, working hours have been reduced to no less than 45 hour's per week (Ford, 1979). In a study of factory workers in Penang, Othman and Abdullah (1983) reported that 98% of their respondents had to work for an average of 8 hours per day whereas 2.1% were

reported to work for 9 to 10 hours per day. In terms of the number of days worked per week, 95.7% said that factory workers worked 6 days a week and a small proportion (3.6 %) said they worked 5 days a week. A total of 90.4% were reported to work shifts whereas 7.1% worked on normal hours. From the total of those who worked on shift, 91.8% were reported to work on a 3-shift basis, 4.6% on 2-shift and 1.1% work on day shift.

For those who worked outside the normal hours of work, overtime was paid at the rate of time and a half, and double time for work performed on weekly restday or public holidays (Ford, 1979). Since the wages paid in Malaysia are still low, most of these workers have to work overtime to earn extra income (Daud, 1985). Table 3-16 and 3-17 shows the distribution of hours usually spent on overtime per day and the total of days workers work as overtime per week, in the study by Daud (1985).

Table 3-16:

The Distribution of Hours Usually Spent on Overtime Per Day.

Number of Hours	Number of Workers
1-2	76
3-5	21
More than 6 Hours	3
Not applicable (never work overtime)	4
Total	104

Source: Daud, Fatimah, (1985:41).

Table 3-17:

The Total of the Days Workers Work Overtime Per Week

Number of Days	Number of Workers
1-2	26
3-4	28
5-6	9
It depends	35
Not applicable (never work overtime)	6
Total	104

Source: Daud, Fatimah, (1985:42)

3.4.3. Job Security

In most cases, blue-collar workers (groups 7/8/9) feel that their job has little prospect for. They normally treat their job as temporary while looking for one with a better future. This is applicable especially to the cases where there is competition for promotion and where selection tends to favour a certain ethnic group because the senior management happens to be drawn from the same group. This was clearly described in Daud's (1985:73) study:

A few of the Malays reported that they felt insecure working there because it was difficult for them to get promoted because their promotion would be decided by those from another ethnic group, that is, the Chinese superiors.

In another study by Othman and Abdullah (1983) it was stated that 56.1% of the respondents interviewed regard working as factory workers insecure. However, respondents who feel

positively about job security are those who have closer contacts with factory workers such as family members, relatives or lodgers working in the companies.

Daud (1985) suggests that most of her respondents who are female workers (more than 50 %) regard their work as temporary and their future prospect as not bright. In addition, according to Daud (1985:25), most of these female workers, especially among those with five years of secondary education, regard their job as a stepping stone to obtain a better one. She writes,

I work here just for fun while waiting for a chance to get some other job.

Some remain to work temporarily in their present job until they get married, while others are among those awaiting examination results and work during school holidays (Daud 1985).

3.4.4. Chances of Promotion

It is very difficult to describe the promotional situation in Peninsular Malaysia because of a lack of data. However, some research has been conducted in related studies and will be reviewed.

In most factories, selection for promotion will depend on the type of management of each organisation. If the company is a Japanese organisation, they are more likely to follow the Japanese system in their promotion system. Similarly, in an American company, the American system will be adopted. For instance, Daud (1985) who studied Malaysian female factory workers in a Japanese owned organisation discovered that structured internal promotion schemes were adopted to reduce labour turnover. This is a combination of the Japanese and the Malaysian policy of promotion. Under such a system, the criteria for selection will be based on : "(a) Period of service; the 'older' staff member is preferable because the longer she serves the more experience and skill she possesses, and (b) Educational qualifications; high qualifications are preferable"(p.32). However, in making decisions, personal qualities are also considered. This includes: the ability to mix with the line workers; to understand and follow instructions; to communicate in two languages (such as Malay and English); the ability to tackle difficult jobs, responsibility, reliability, the ability to handle statistics, supervision and leadership.

Moreover, according to Daud (1985) the promotional system has to take the racial factor into consideration. In making decisions on promotion for a certain post, the management has

to set a fair quota with an acceptable ratio for the various ethnic groups as required by the government. This, therefore, leads to selecting an unqualified candidate in the promotion process. In most cases, however, the quota for the Chinese was bigger than for any other group. This is due to the fact that the "top rank" people are among the Chinese and similarly for English language proficiency. Daud suggests that there is a tendency to bias and "favouritism" in the promotion process. As a result, the Malays feel discriminated and frustrated with the system which leads to resignation. Likewise it is believed that the reverse happens in the public sector where the Chinese and the Indians feel that the Malays are given the promotions which frustrate the Chinese and the Indians.

Generally, the chances for promotion in most factories are very low. Daud (1985) noted that in her study, only 29% of her respondents consider they have a chance for promotion. This supports Othman's and Abdullah's (1983) finding. According to these researchers, 36% of their respondents consider that the possibility of promotion in the factory is good, 25% consider they had no chance of promotion while 27 % answer "don't know" to this question.

3.4.5. Management and Workers Relationship

In general, it seems that there is a barrier in the

relationship between the management and workers in some organisations. Daud (1985:72) described the relationship between management and workers as:

that of a superior and inferior relationship. At the same time it was seen as the relationship between people of unequal status in different ethnic groups. Unequal status and ethnic differences imply an avoidance or distance of some kind.

A similar statement was expressed by Yun et al., (1986:19):

Workers from rural areas see their manager as 'a god, one worker complains. They believe everything he says and are frightened whenever he shouts at them.

Yun et al (1986) in their study on women and work in Malaysia noted that in trying to increase profits, the supervisor has to be strict with the workers. Normally, the workers are not allowed to talk during work and are given a short time to go to the restroom. Similar impressions were given by Daud (1985:73) when she writes:

The E.C. (Electrolytic Capacitor) manager was very strict and serious and frequently reprimanded those who made mistakes, even slight ones. All the workers feared him and many reported that they felt nervous when the manager was around. A number of workers cried after they had been reprimanded by the assistant plant manager.

As a multi-racial society, another problem faced by most organisations in handling their workers is the strong feeling of prejudice and favouritism towards similar race groups (Daud, 1985). Even though, certain actions were taken according to

procedure, this, however, was misinterpreted by the other groups as discrimination which confirmed their prejudice. In her study, she found that most workers expressed their frustration and dissatisfaction in the work place which reflects to some extent the feeling of ethnic descrimination among workers. Her study reveals that 70% of the workers claim that there is discrimination against certain ethnic groups of workers. Unlike the Chinese workers, the Malays and the Indians feel descriminated against in most promotion exercises (Daud, 1985).

3.4.6. Peer Group Interaction

Daud (1985) illustrated the different cultures and values between the Chinese, the Malays and the Indians such as the way that they live, work, play, dress, eat, speak. Even their ethnic identities such as names, skin colour, and physical features set the boundaries for them to adapt to a new environment and a new set of values when first entering the work place. After a short while they start to learn to adjust to the behaviour of the other ethnic groups. In her study, she observed that the Chinese workers seems to adapt faster than the Malays in this process of accommodation. Although they, sometimes, quarrelled because of misinterpreting of certain jokes, because of misused words of different related ethnic

languages, the relationship between the different ethnic groups are basically harmonious.

However, in her conclusion Daud insists that in most cases the objective of the New Economic Policy to create a deeper sense of racial unity and harmony fails because the structure in the assembly line was designed in such a way that there was a tendency for a newcomer to "gang-up" with those of a similar ethnic background and a similar place of origin. Besides the similar ethnic backgrounds, the workers also chose friends from the same lines or sections or ethnic group which further maintains their strong ethnic entity.

CHAPTER FOUR

LITERATURE REVIEW

4.0. Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to investigate the importance of a number of key variables in understanding the factors influencing labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia. This chapter begins with a review of the relevant models of voluntary labour turnover. This is followed by a review of previous empirical studies on factors influencing voluntary labour turnover. This will provide a frame of reference for analysing the factors which influence the decision of an individual employee in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia to change jobs.

4.1. Review of Employee Turnover Model

In the study of labour turnover phenomena, a number of different conceptual models to explain the influences on the turnover decision process have been developed. An attempt is made to give an explanation to this phenomena, some studies identified a single relationship between a causal variable and turnover. They normally propose a simple and straight forward

theory of turnover. Several other studies suggest bivariate relationship. Whereas others highlight with multivariate relationship, suggesting a comprehensive and sophisticated model of turnover. Price (1975:51), however, concluded that two sets of "turnover" theories have been put forward:

1. The first set focuses exclusively on turnover (Schuh, 1967; Farris, 1971; Lefkowitz, 1967; Lefkowitz, 1971; Parker and Burton, 1967; Burton and Parker, 1969; Pencavel, 1970; Stoikov and Raimon, 1968; Greeley, 1972 (a) and (b); Knowles, 1964; Bowey, 1972)
2. The second set includes turnover as part of a more general concern (March and Simon, 1958; Lyons, 1968; Lawler, 1971; Katzell et al., 1971).

Price argues that these two sets of theories are differentiated through their levels of sophistication such as the explicit statement of propositions. However, both theories contain a common element of explanation.

Given the number of theories, it is not the purpose of this thesis to review all of them in detail but simply to identify the theories which consistently receive support and appreciation in the literature and thereby provide a theoretical backdrop to explain the factors affecting to voluntary labour turnover.

4.1.1. The March and Simon Model

Price (1975) cited the classic work of March and Simon

(1958) as the start of an effort to develop a theory of turnover. The March and Simon model encompasses two major variables as antecedents of turnover behaviour: (a) the perceived desirability of leaving the employer and (b) the perceived ease of movement from the employer. These two variables are closely related in the turnover decision process.

The perceived desirability of movement is associated with job satisfaction and the perceived possibility of interorganisational transfer. The perception of movement is hypothesized by March and Simon (1958) as follows:

(i) the greater the individual's satisfaction with the job, the less the perceived desirability of movement (p.94).

(ii) the larger the organisation, the greater the perceived possibility of intraorganisational transfer and therefore the less perceived desirability of leaving the organisation (p.99).

More specifically, job satisfaction is related to three major hypotheses (March and Simon, 1958:pp.94-99);

(1) the greater the predictability of instrumental relationship on the job, the higher the level of satisfaction.

(2) the greater the compatibility of work requirements with the requirements of other roles, the higher the level of satisfaction. Compatibility of work is correlated with congruence of work time patterns with those of other roles and the size of the work group.

(3) the greater the conformity of the job characteristics to the self-characterization held by the individual, the higher the level of satisfaction. Conformity of the job characteristics is associated with rate of change of status and/or income, education and training, individual's participation in job assignment, wages and supervisory

practices.

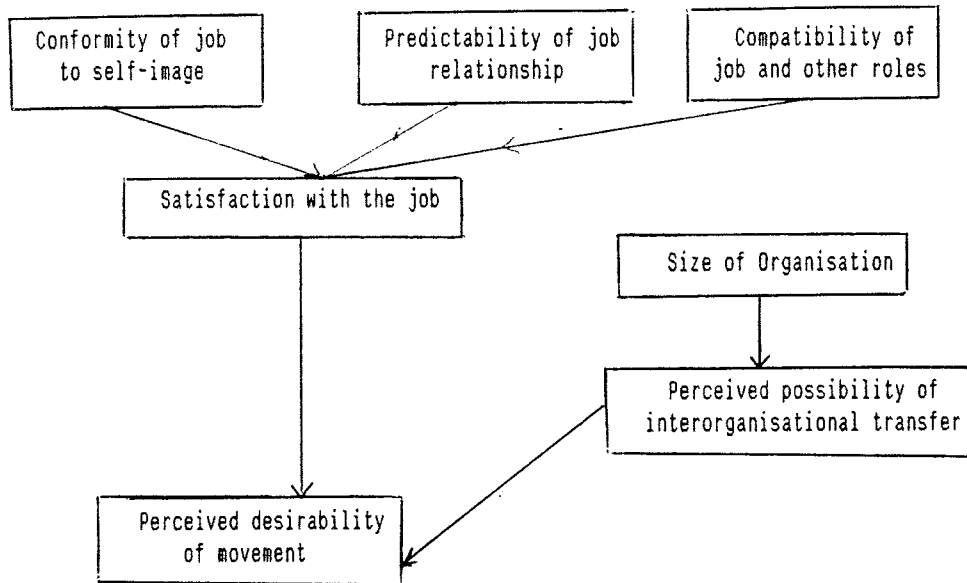


Figure 4-1: Factors Affecting Perceived Desirability of Movement
Source: March and Simon (1958:99)

The perceived ease of movement is associated with the number of extraorganizational alternatives perceived. March and Simon hypothesise that the greater the number of perceived extraorganisational alternatives, the greater the perceived ease of movement. More specifically, the number of extraorganisational alternatives perceived is correlated to the level of business activity, number of organisations visible, and the personal characteristics of the participants.

March and Simon's model, therefore, suggests that when the desirability of movement and perceived ease of movement are

high, the employees are more likely to quit their jobs with an organisation.

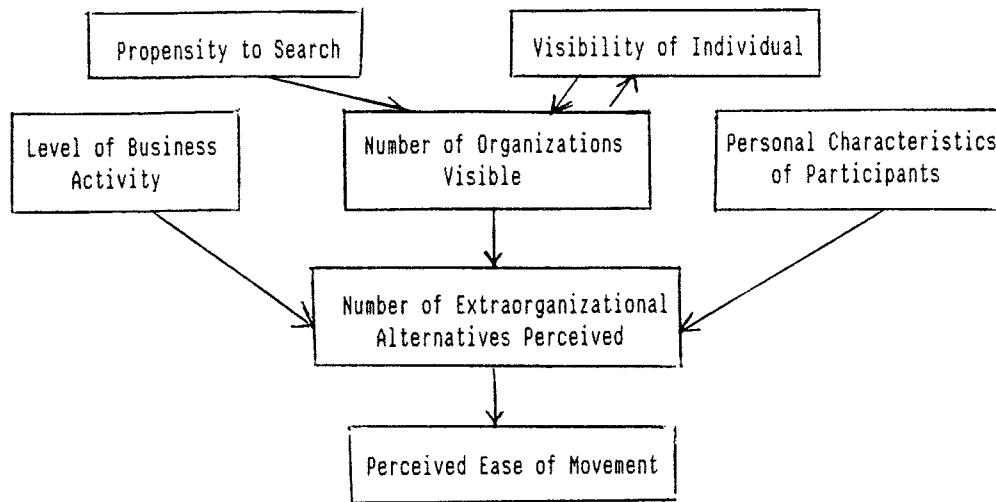


Figure 4-2: Factors Affecting Perceived Ease of Movement
Source: March and Simon (1958:106)

4.1.2. The Porter et al. Model

Porter and Steers (1973) defend the theory of met expectations which explain the employee turnover process. The model suggests four broad classes of variables which are believed to be correlated to turnover: (a) organisation-wide factors, (b) immediate work environment factors, (c) job-related factors, and (d) personal factors. Porter et al finds that the decision to change employment is associated with a process of balancing received or potential rewards with desired expectations. When an employee's prior expectations are not met on the job, he/she is likely to change his/her job.

In 1974, Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian developed the organisational commitment model to explain the turnover process. Porter's findings reveal that organisational commitment has been significantly and consistently associated with turnover. Additionally, variables which have been found to be associated with satisfaction have also been correlated with organisational commitment. In conclusion, Porter illustrated that employees who are highly committed to the organisations goals are less likely to leave.

4.1.3. The Price Model

Price (1975) attempts to provide an alternative model of turnover by providing a list of four determinants which are expected to influence the employee's decision to leave their employment. The four determinants (pay, participation in primary groups, communication, and centralization) are based on strong empirical support. The four determinants of turnover are suggested in causal propositions (pp.55-63) and are as follow:

(1) If pay is highly important, and if the amount of pay received is perceived as relatively high, then successively higher amounts of pay will likely produce successively lower amounts of turnover.

(2) Successively higher amounts of participation in primary groups will likely produce successively lower amounts of turnover.

(3) Successively higher amounts of communication¹ will likely produce successively lower amounts of turnover.

(4) Successively higher amounts of centralization² will likely produce successively higher amounts of turnover.

Beside the four determinants, Price proposed two intervening variables of an economic nature which mediate between determinants and turnover. The two intervening variables (opportunity - a social psychological variable and net balance of benefits over costs - structural variable) happen at different times, assist to conciliate the relationship between the independents (determinant variables) and dependent variable (turnover). The proposed theory is illustrated by the diagram in Figure 4-3.

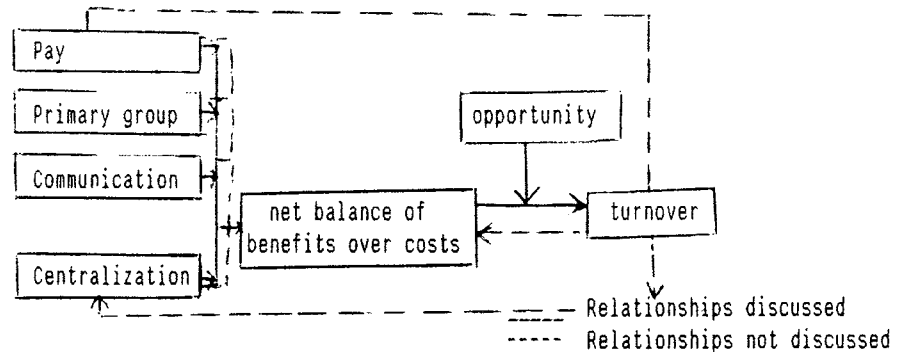


Figure 4-3: Theory of Turnover
Source: Price (1975:73)

1. Price (1972:58) cited in Price (1975:61) defined the term communication as "the degree to which information is transmitted among the members of a social system".

2. Price (1972:43) quoted in Price (1975:63) defined the term centralization as "the degree to which power is concentrated in a social system".

In 1977, Price developed a new model of turnover with five determinant variables. These variables can have variations in turnover which includes: Pay, integrations, instrumental communication, formal communication and centralization. The determinant variables are introduced in causal statements as follow:

- (1) Successively higher amount of pay probably produce successively lower amounts of turnover.
- (2) Successively higher amounts of intergration will probably produce successively lower amounts of turnover.
- (3) Successively higher amounts of instrumental communication will probably produce successively lower amounts of turnover.
- (4) Successively higher amounts of formal communication will probably produce successively lower amounts of turnover.
- (5) Successively higher amounts of centralization will probably produce successively higher amounts of turnover.

The proposed theory is best illustrated by the diagram in figure 4-4.

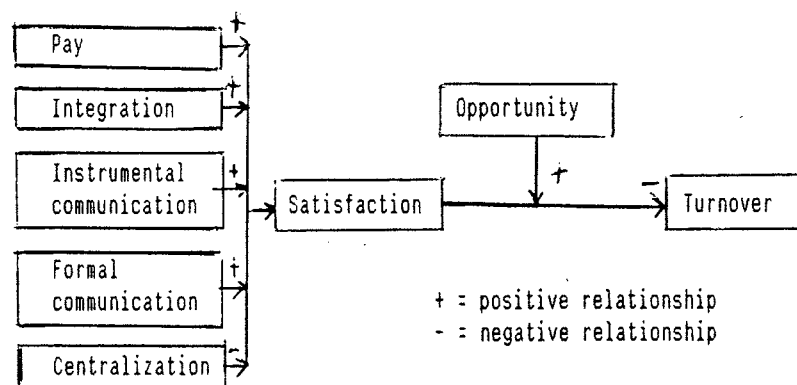


Figure 4-4: Relationships between the determinants, intervening variables, and turnover.
Source: Price (1977:84).

In his model, Price (1977) introduces two intervening variables which occur at different times. The first variable is "satisfaction" which is a social psychological variable, followed by the second, which is structural in nature known as "Opportunity". Price identified "turnover" as a dependent variable.

4.1.4. The Mobley's Turnover Decision Process

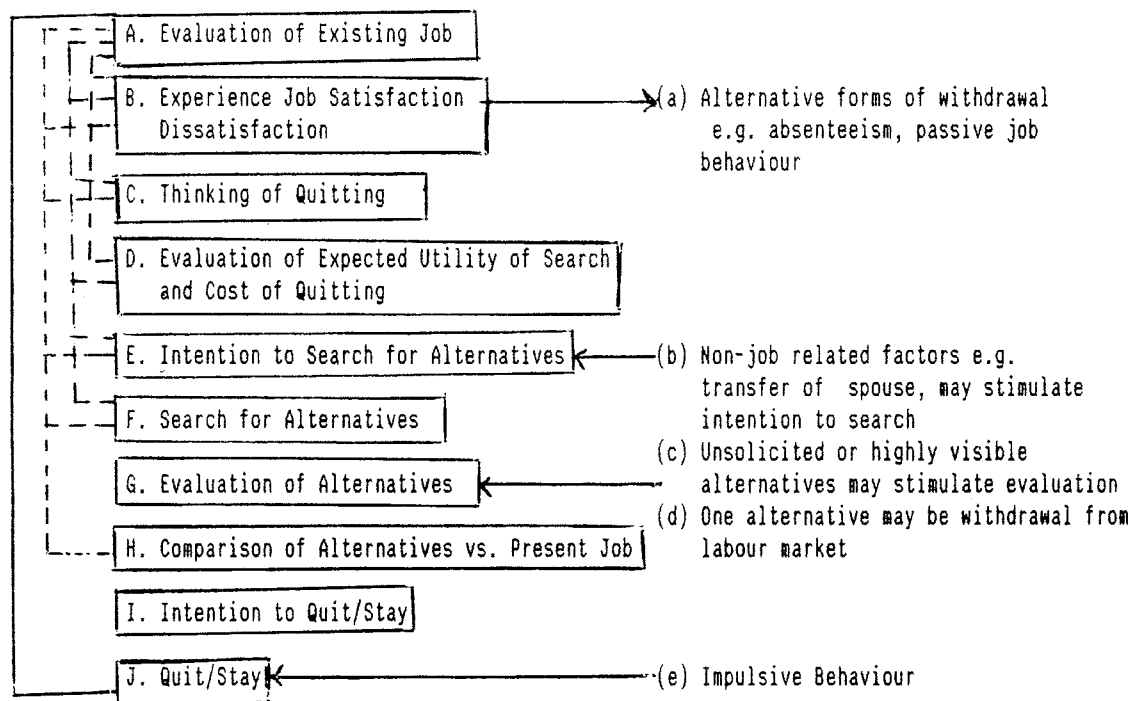


Figure 4-5: The Employee Turnover Decision Process
Source: Mobley (1977:238)

Since the classic work of March and Simon (1958), Mobley (1977) further develops a more sophisticated and comprehensive

model which explains the turnover decision process. In 1977, Mobley introduces an intermediate linkage system which explains the association between job satisfaction and turnover. The suggested model consists of ten logical steps in the process of explaining the actual turnover decision. A diagrammatic representation of his model is illustrated in Figure 4-5.

The starting point in the decision process is "evaluating the existing job". Following on is the process of "experiencing job satisfaction or dissatisfaction". According to Mobley, the outcome of experiencing dissatisfaction provokes thoughts of quitting. At this stage, other types of withdrawal which are less final than quitting, such as absenteeism, are identified as the possible outcome of dissatisfaction. The next step after the thought of quitting is the "evaluation of expected utility of search and cost of quitting". This evaluation should take into account some considerations of losing seniority, loss of benefits, costs involved such as travelling etc. According to Mobley if the costs of quitting is low and the expected utility of search is high the individual might search for alternatives. This intention is followed by the actual search. If the alternatives are available, an evaluation of alternatives begins. This includes a comparison of the present job to alternatives. If the comparison points to the alternative, it

will instigate a behavioural intention to quit. Actual resignation follows.

Mowday et al., (1984) note that following the earlier theoretical work of Mobley, in 1978, Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth carried out an empirical study to test the intermediate linkage model. Mobley et al (1978) find that the correlation and regression analyses show that the intention to quit is the best single predictor to actual turnover. The model proposes the following causal linkages: (1) job satisfaction -> thoughts about leaving; (2) thoughts about leaving -> intention to search; (3) probability of finding an acceptable alternative-> intention to search; (4) intention to search -> intention to quit; and (5) intention to quit -> turnover.

In 1979, following from the review and analysis of the existing literature, Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino proposed a comprehensive and sophisticated model of turnover. This model attempts to recognise the turnover process is based upon individual, organisational and economic factors. These broad categories are assumed to interact and eventually influence intentions to search, intentions to quit, and actual turnover (See Figure 4-6).

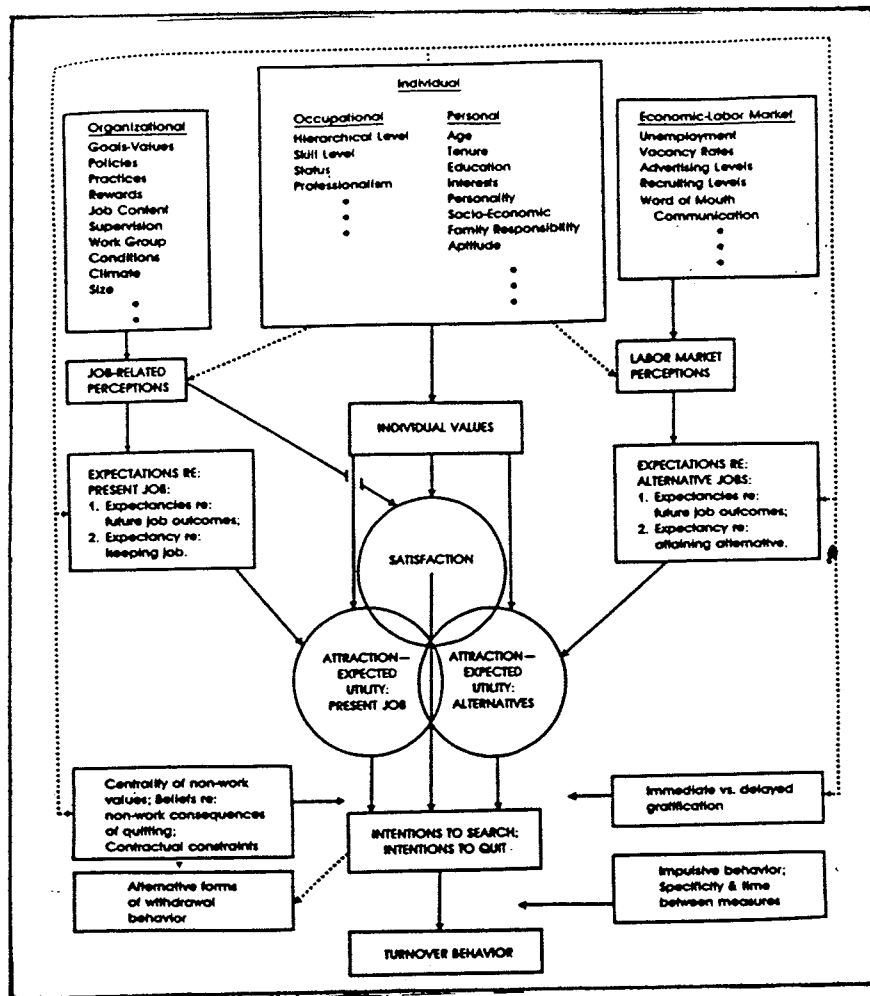


Figure 4-6: A schematic representation of the primary variables and process of employee turnover.

Source: Mobley et al., (1979:517)

4.1.5. The Theory of Reasoned Action

According to Prestholdt et al., (1987) the growing body of literature has omitted much of the psychology of the turnover process. Therefore, they recommended that "the theory of

reasoned action" by Ajezen & Fishbein (1980) and Fishbein (1980) which is beneficial to build a conceptual base for turnover research. This theory adopted several characteristics as suggested by Mobley et al., (1979) for the process models of turnover.

The theory of reasoned action is developed to explain the complexity of decision-making process. The theory presume that behavioural decision such as withdrawal only take place after the individual has used available information in a reasonable and rational way. Specifically, the decision-making process is believed as a hierarchical sequence primarily from beliefs, through attitudes and social norms, to intention, and finally to behaviour. This has been put forward in the following formula:

$$B \sim BI = W1 Aact + W2 SN$$

B ~ = Behaviour

BI = Behaviour Intention

Aact = The individual's personal affect or attitude toward performing (or not performing) the behaviour

SN = The person's perception of the social influence or normative pressure to perform (or not perform) the behaviour

In conclusion, after reviewing the above models it is clear that most of them do not demonstrate a clearly different approaches as to explain the turnover decision process. However, they illustrate almost similar explanations. This

argument supports the statement by Bluedorn (1982:135) when he mention:

While many of these models emphasize different parts of the turnover process, they tend to be more complementary than contradictory.

In view of the complexity of the factors influencing voluntary labour turnover, several researchers have proposed a number of convenient categories of these variables. For instance, Knowles (1964:25) presented four categories: external, institutional, individual characteristics and workers' reaction to their job.

In the study of Van der Merwe et al., (1971:234) the factors are categorised under three headings classified as follows:

- (a) Outside economic factors which affect labour market, and which impinge on the work situation, such as the level of employment.
- (b) Factors within the employing organisation which affect the employee
- (c) Factors within the employee as an individual, or within the groups of employees.

On the other hand, Porter and Steers (1973:151) suggest four broad categories of factors influencing labour turnover:

- (a) Organisational-Wide Factors
- (b) Immediate Work Environment Factors
- (c) Job-Related Factors
- (d) Personal Factors

Williams et al.,(1979:1) suggests that factors which influence an employee to leave could be grouped into three broad causal areas namely:

- (a) General Economic Factors
- (b) Organisational Factors and
- (c) Personal or Individual Factors

Simillarily, Muchinsky and Morrow (1980:274) indicate three set of categories known as:

- (a) Individual Factors
- (b) Work Related Factors and
- (c) Economic Opportunity Factors.

In their study of labour turnover, Koch and Rhodes (1981:145) examine three categories of causes:

- (a) Organisational
- (b) Job and
- (c) Personal Characteristics.

In conclusion, taking into account these suggested categories as factors influencing labour turnover, for the purpose of this study, the factor influencing voluntary labour turnover will be classified as follows:

- (a) Demographic and Personal factors
- (b) Organisational factors
- (c) External factors

Each category consists of several items which are used to describe these broader categories. The following section identifies a number of variables discussed widely in most of the previous research on the categories related to turnover

decisions. It is important to note here that the term "variable" is adopted to describe the items grouped under each category.

4.2. Empirical Evidence on Factors Influencing Voluntarily Labour Turnover

In reviewing the literature on factors influencing voluntary labour turnover, it should be born in mind that this phenomenon has been studied with a variety of different kinds of research coverage and method. For instance, some studies take place in industrialised nations such as Great Britain (Behrend, 1953 and Clegg, 1983) and United States of America (Mobley et al., 1978; Arnold and Feldman, 1982), whereas others in less industrialised nation such as Kenya (Nigan and Singer, 1974). Also, the study of labour turnover covers different groups of occupations such as production workers (Ley, 1966), scientists and engineers (Farris, 1971), nurses (Saleh et al., 1965) and clerical workers (Shott et al., 1963). In addition, some studies focus exclusively on turnover (Farris, 1971 and Pencavel, 1970), whereas others, study turnover as part of a more general concern (March and Simon, 1958).

With regard to research method, some studies employed exit interviews (Clarke, 1950 and Ronan, 1967) whereas researchers

like Porter et al., (1976) assess employees' attitudes by comparing prior attitude scores between staying and leaving groups. Mowday (1981), on the otherhand, used management as a source of information to discover factors influencing labour turnover. Whereas, William et al., (1979) studied the labour turnover phenomena based on data derived from personnel records and an attitude survey.

In view of the complexity of these different kinds of research, it is not the purpose of this section to review and discuss all of them, but to highlight the empirical evidence on factors influencing voluntarily labour turnover.

4.2.1. Demographic and Personnal Factors

Price (1977:24) states that "the correlates are the indicators to which turnover is related". He emphasizes that the correlation between these variables and turnover indicates empirical generalisation rather than causation, and the most popular term synonymous to correlates is "demographic variable". In this section, it is necessary to determine the correlation that exists between these factors and turnover.

This section provides the theoretical backdrop for

correlates variables. These variables include:- age, length of service, family size and responsibility, sex, level of education, and marital status. Porter et al., (1973:164) states that these variables are "unique to the individuals which appears to have a significant impact on the problems of turnover". Similarly, Pettman (1975) categories this as individual characteristics of an employee, over which the management of an individual organisation can exercise only minimal control.

4.2.1.1. Age

In the literature on employee turnover, empirical evidence points to the fact that there is a strong negative relationship between age and turnover. The negative relationship that exists in these studies means that as age increases the rate of turnover decreases. In other words young workers have a higher rate of turnover compared to older ones. This relationship has been found to exist in several studies of a variety of occupations and industries by Harris (1964), Ley (1966), Bassett (1967), Stone & Athelstan (1969), Farris (1971), Robinson (1972), William et al (1979), Bluedorn (1982) and Arnold and Feldman (1982). Age as defined here is an individual's chronological age (Bluedorn, 1982).

According to Harris (1964), most of the leavers consist of young workers. This has been shown in Kaplan's (1963) and Monmouthshire's (1958) surveys, which are cited in the study by Harris. Kaplan's reports show that 85% of those changing jobs were in the thirty five years and under age-group, and 50% in the eighteen to twenty five group. The Monmouthshire survey established that the twenty to thirty-five age group accounts for 48.7% of all leavers, and 48.5% of all starters.

Ley (1966), for instance, has studied the turnover of male production workers of a television picture-tube manufacturing company. He found that those who voluntarily left their employment within one year were younger than those who maintained their employment for more than one year. Farris (1971) who studied turnover among professional employees (scientists and engineers in two organisations) supports Ley's findings.

Williams et al. (1979) concludes that a number of positive findings emerge in his research which support the relevance of other turnover studies. In their study of turnover among ancillary staff in a London Hospital, it was shown that older workers were less likely to leave. Among the personal factor tested, age was found to have statistically significant

relationship with turnover. Similar findings are also to be found in March and Mannari (1977); Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian (1974) findings.

The explanation for this relationship is that the older the employee, the more important is job security (Clarke, 1950). Benefits such as pension rights are among important factors affecting longer length of service, and thus lower the turnover rate (Hatch, 1963 and Pilch, 1973).

With respect to the relationship between age and turnover, Harris (1964) speculates that one would of course, presume turnover to be prominent among the younger age group. The young worker may frequently change his mind about his choice of profession or decide to continue his education. He is less tied up by family responsibilities, and more mobile. In comparison with most British research, he notes that high turnover was explained by the greater range of opportunities for this age-group. According to him, it is expected amongst most school-leavers when there is available alternative employment because most of them pick out whatever first job come along when leaving school. In relation to this the findings of the Farris (1971) study, suggest that if the manager wishes to reduce turnover then he should select older persons who are strongly

oriented toward their institutions and not so strongly toward their profession.

Other studies undertaken by researchers such as March and Simon (1958); Federico, Federico, & Lundquist (1976); Waters, Roach, & Waters (1976); Mobley et al. (1978); Stumpf and Dawley (1981) and Knapp et al (1982) also indicate a negative relationship between age and turnover. Other studies by Shott, Albright, & Glennon (1963), however, found such relationships in women but not in men.

According to March and Simon (1958:101) the perceived availability of outside alternatives is a function of the age of the participant, the older the worker, the less the perceived ease of movement. This hypothesis has been validated by several studies and also by Bucklow (1963).

Bucklow (1963) and Herzberg et al (1957) supply possible answers to the apparent reversal in the relationship between age and turnover. Bucklow observes that leaving a job now involves a loss of such entitlements as pensions and long service leave, Herzberg et al. found that employees became more concerned with job security as age increases. According to Herzberg et al, in the case of older workers, when retirement

is around the corner, the existence of pensions plans, and seniority in the bargaining units contributes to the worker's feeling of security. Consequently this makes the older workers much less mobile than the younger ones.

Other studies by Walker & Lumsden (1963) and Cooper & Payne (1965) however, established that there was a positive relationship between age and turnover. Walker and Lumsden (1963) finding that the forty and fifty age groups tended to be the least satisfied was supported by Cooper & Payne. Hillriegel and White (1973); Naylor and Vincent (1959), however, report no relationship between age and turnover in their studies.

In conclusion, Mobley et al., (1979) point out that several studies show negative relationship between age and turnover, however, the amount of variance explained is less than 7%. Therefore, a conceptual model and multivariate study is required to adequately comprehend the psychology of the turnover process. He also stresses that one should note the following. Since age is correlated with many other variables, it alone contributes little to the understanding of turnover behaviour. Mobley supports Down's (1967) findings that labour turnover may also be affected by several other factors.

4.2.1.2. Length of Service

Besides age, the length of service with an organisation is also an important variable relating to turnover. This has been confirmed in many studies on turnover (Knowles, 1964; Price and Bluedorn, 1980; Koch and Rhodes, 1981; and Mitchell, 1981). The length of service as defined by Bluedorn (1982:140) is "the amount of time an individual has been a member of an organisation".

Existing empirical evidence generally suggests that there is a strong relationship between turnover and length of service. For instance, a negative relationship between tenure and turnover was found in five recent studies by Stoikov and Reimon (1968), Magione (1973), Waters et al., (1976), Mobley et al., (1979), Price & Bluedorn (1980). Stoikov and Reimon (1968) in their study found that this relationship between length of service and turnover rate did exist in their inter-industry data. Whereas, Mangione (1973) in his multivariate study on turnover concluded that length of service is one of the best single predictors of turnover.

Shott et al. (1963) in a study on turnover among clerical workers found that employees who had a long length of service

with their last employer also had longer length of service with their present employer. His finding was supported by Gow et al (1974) who look at 57 former telephone advertisement sales girls. Their findings showed that the length of service was significantly shorter for leavers than for current employees.

Knowles (1964) who did a study of turnover among factory workers found that the length of service of an employee's previous job could be used as an indicator to predict the probability of lasting on their present job. Also, similar findings were found in the study by Fleishman and Berniger (1960) and by Robinson (1972).

In most British research on turnover, it has shown that the employees with shorter length of service with an organisation are more likely to leave (Harris, 1964). Harris's opinion which explains this is that the first year of employment is the most problematic period, the first three months being the most difficult. His suggestion to management is to concentrate on the first three months in order to diminish turnover. This is because some workers become unstable once they move to a new place of work. There might be a problem of adaptating to a new job which is destabilizing. This pattern was observed in enterprises with high and low turnover.

Harris' findings reinforce those by Brodman and Hellman (1947). Brodman and Hellman feel that the newcomer is always less self-confident in taking on a job. The likelihood of failure is always present in the newcomer's mind. Likewise, Gomersall and Myers (1966) in their study establish that most workers were nervous and disturbed on the first days on the job. He further insists that the initial employment period is normally characterized as a time of adjustment / socialization. In this case, turnover among them was perceived to be caused by anxiety. Most of those left their jobs early because they withdrew from a situation which they believed they were performing insufficiently; in their own eyes or that of their peers', or their supervisors'.

On the other hand, the reasons given explaining the relationship between longer length of service and decrease in turnover is illustrated by Harris (1964). He says that because of benefits such as pensions which could be an important factor as to this reason employees stayed longer in the organisation which lower the rate of turnover.

In conclusion, the previous findings have shown that there is some relationship between length of service and turnover. Recent studies by Price (1977), Muchinsky and Turtle (1979) and

Arnold and Feldman (1982) confirm these findings.

4.2.1.3. Family Size and Responsibility

Various studies undertaken by several researchers such as Fleishman & Berniger (1960), Knowles (1964), Robinson (1972), Federico et al (1976), Marsh and Mannari (1977) and Arnold and Feldman (1982) indicate the impact of family size and responsibilities on turnover.

Stone and Athelstan (1969), for instance, who studied turnover among females shows that there is a positive relationship between increases in family size and increased tendencies to turnover. On the contrary, Knowles's (1964) study found that a negative relationship existed between increases in family size and turnover among male factory workers. This contrast in the findings on the impact of family size among male and female turnover can be simply explained by the typical rule of traditional sex-role differentiation in the family.

Saleh et al's (1965) study of turnover among nurses found that "family reasons" was the main reason for them quitting their jobs. The studies by Fleishman & Berniger, (1960) and Robinson (1972) found that older women with older children had

lower turnover rates compared to the younger one.

The impact of the number of dependents is used as measure of family responsibility in most studies (Federico et al, 1976: March and Mannari, 1977). In their study among credit union females, Federico et al. found that higher responsibility was associated with longer length of service. Influencing factors include marital status, number of children, age of youngest child and age. March & Mannari (1977) in their study found that the individuals with none or few dependents had higher turnover.

Besides family size (number of dependent), marital status is also used to assess family responsibilities which has some impact on turnover. Mangione (1973) found that single people had higher turnover. Mangione's finding was supported by Goodman et al (1973). Goodman points out that unmarried HCU workers demonstrate higher turnover than married HCU workers.

Recent researchers have also suggested some relationship between family responsibility and turnover (Mowday 1979; Viscusi, 1980; and Keller, 1984);

4.2.1.4. Sex

A review of literature dealing with the relationship between sex and turnover suggests that some evidence is conflicting (Pettman, 1975). This is supported by Price (1977) who insists that the data on sex is inconsistent. More systematic research should be done before any generalisation on this relationship can be made.

Even though the data on sex is inconsistent, several previous studies have confirmed the hypothesis that female employees show higher turnover rates than the males employees. In line with this, Price (1977) points out that the most consistent finding on sex and turnover is that females employees have higher rates of turnover than male employees. In supporting this generalization, he refers to the work of Hedberg (1960), Young (1965, 1971), Singer (1970), Mackay et al. (1971), March and Mannari, 1971), Armknecht and Early (1972), and Archibald (1973) which are sufficient to merit a generalization.

Similarly, in America, The Administrative Management Society (1965) as cited in Pettman (1975) who did a survey using data from 1645 firms in twenty states and provinces

showed that the turnover rates among women was on an average more than double that for males.

In Britain, at least three studies have revealed similar finding. The British Institute of Management (1950) as quoted in Pettman (1975) found that turnover rates were higher for women than for men. For instance, turnover rate which they received for the first six months in 1949 was 13.6% for male compared to 21.0% for females. The same patterns of data were revealed by the British Department of Employment in May 1970. Similar findings were found in recent studies by Knapp et al (1982) and Clegg (1983).

On the contrary, several other studies in western societies have also confirmed the hypothesis which indicates that males employees have higher turnover rates than the females employees. For instance, Price (1977) provides several reviews (Goodman et al.1973; March and Simon, 1958; Katzell et al.1971 and Wales 1970).

In American society this hypothesis has been validated by Myers and Maclaurin, (1943). Likewise, in British society such conclusion was found in Klein, (1961).

There are several factors which could explain why female workers have higher turnover rates than that of males. For example, Harris (1964) demonstrates that among the reasons for leaving given by women are dissatisfaction with heavy work, unsuitable conditions, night shifts, difficulty with children, lack of opportunity to raise qualifications and lack of kindergartens.

Other basic factors that would tend to make turnover higher for women than for men are as pointed out by Bucklow (1963) are in some undertakings, resignation is compulsory after marriage. This is supported by Knapp et al. (1982) who illustrates that female workers were more likely to leave for domestic reasons, such as to bring up a family.

Pettman (1975) points out that despite management's beliefs that the turnover of females is higher than that of males, the evidence is conflicting and will always be until more systematic investigations are done.

4.2.1.5. Education

Recent studies dealing with education, suggest that there is evidence to link better-educated employees with higher rates

of turnover than less-educated workers. In some studies the education level is meant by the amount of an individual's formal schooling. For the purpose of this study education level means the level of education achieved since schooling. The relationship between the level of education and turnover has received wide attention by several researchers. For instance, in most recent studies on female credit union employees, Federico, Federico & Lundquist, (1976) found that those who had higher education had lower length of service.

Other studies by Goodman et al. (1973) and Pettman (1973) proposed a positive relationship between education and turnover. Similar findings were found in Bucklow (1963), Berg (1970), Irzinski and Hylbert (1970), Katzell et al. (1971), Gross et al. (1972), Mobley et. al (1979) and Spencer and Steers (1981).

Martin (1979) in his study found that the level of education has an important effect on intention to leave. In other words, this means that those workers with higher levels of education are more likely to resign. The main factor that would tend to make turnover higher for those with high levels of education is that they have expectations that the organisation cannot fulfil.

4.2.1.6. Marital Status

Several previous studies, for example, Harris (1964) have demonstrated the relationship between marital status and labour turnover. Unmarried workers are more likely to leave a job compared to married workers. Arnold and Feldman (1982) in their study of the accounting profession have shown that marital status was positively associated with turnover. His finding reinforce those by Harris.

Earlier, Federico et al., (1976) noted similiar results. They found that marital status is correlated with a decrease in turnover. Mangione (1973) also identified this variable as a contributory factor influencing turnover. His result shows that single workers have higher turnover than that of married workers.

The main factors that would tend to explain why married workers have lower rate of turnover than that of single workers is that married workers are more bounded by family responsibilities, and are therefore less mobile.

4.2.2. Organisational Factors

This section, provides the theoretical backdrop for

organisational variables. These variables include:- pay, promotion, supervisory style, peer group interaction, work unit size, job content, job security, working condition, and working hours. Pettman (1975:31) categories this as 'structural factors', "over which the management of an individual can exercise some control".

Price (1977:66), classifies organisational variables as 'determinants' variables influencing turnover. According to him, these variables are the "analytical variables believed to produce variations in turnover". Several previous studies have shown that employees' reasons for leaving are directly related to organisational variables (e.g. Porter and Steers, 1973; William et al., 1979; Mobley et al., 1979; Koch and Rhodes, 1981).

4.2.2.1. Pay

Previous research has indicated a great many variables affecting turnover. Several theoretical studies, however, have emphasized pay as the most important determining variable influencing turnover (Stoikov and Raimon, 1968; Burton and Parker, 1969; Pencavel, 1970; Lawler, 1971; Bowey, 1972; and Price, 1977).

Before analysing pay as a factor affecting turnover, it is useful to begin with some definitions of pay used in the literature by most researchers.

Several researchers use different terms which however, refer to pay as a whole. Some researchers use the word 'earnings' (Bowey,1972), 'returns' (Pencavel,1970), 'wages' (Burton and Parker,1969). This has been explained in Price (1975:56). According to him, 'earnings' commonly refer to "the amount of money which employees directly receive". Whereas, 'returns' refer to "sum of monetary earnings".

Among the distinctions made between the term "wages", "salary", "earnings" and "pay" are those furnished by Adam (1982:169-463). He defines these as follows:

WAGES: is the regular income from employment usually paid weekly in an envelope, but perhaps daily for casual or temporary workers..... income from all forms of employment, including the salaries, commission, etc.

Salary: is a regular monthly payment to an employee doing administrative work, esp. in an office, or carrying managerial responsibility. In Britain, salaries are expressed as an amount for a whole year, but in many countries they are expressed as a monthly figure.

EARNING: The total sums of money earned by an employee during a regular pay period such as a week or a month, including additional pay for overtime, bonuses, etc.

PAY: Money earned by, or given to, an employee or wages or salary in return for his services.

According to Ammer and Ammer (1977), wage is a more restricted definition and is the same as salary, which refers to the earnings of workers. Whereas March (1979) defines salary as "A form of remuneration, usually contrasted with wages in which a fixed payment is made,...." (p.265). He further define wage as "The earning or take-home pay of a wage earner, as distinct from the salary of a grade of worker not regarded as a workman or servant"(p.331).

This however, has clearly been defined by Lawler (1971), and cited in Price (1977). He defines pay as "the money, fringe benefits, and other commodities that have financial value which organizations give to employees in return from their service". Price notes also that in most studies, the amount of money directly received by their members are used to measure pay. For the purpose of this study we agree with the approach used by Price (1977) that this measurement will be used because computation of "fringe benefits and other commodities" is usually too complicated.

Next, we present the previous finding's on pay as a factor affecting turnover.

Empirical research of the late 1940s has suggested negative causal relationship between pay and turnover. In respect to this, high turnover is reported to be associated with low wages in the studies by Kerr (1947), Smith and Kerr (1953), Poidevin (1956), Brackett and Spaney (1957), Minor (1958) and March and Simon (1958).

Kerr (1947), for instance, in a study on turnover found that turnover was related to hourly earnings. Later, in Smith and Kerr (1953) studies for reasons leaving employment, found that pay was acknowledged more than twice as often as any other single variable. Similarly, Poidevin (1956) found that there is a negative relationship between labour turnover rates and pay rates in the different sections in a factory. His findings show that lower rates of turnover were found in higher paid groups. On the other hand, higher rates of turnover were found in lower paid groups. His findings are supported by Burton and Parker (1969) who further demonstrate that, 'interindustry wage differentials' are an example of those variables which explain the move by workers to quit because of the comparisons they make of their own and other firms (p.201).

Ronan (1967), speculates that most of those who leave their job are those who were dissatisfied with pay. His study

shows that salary is usually emphasised at the higher levels of work hierarchy. On the contrary, persons at the lower level usually demonstrate steady work. In his study among clerical, administrative and professional personnel of large manufacturing firm, he indicates "salary" as the major reason for leaving. Whereas in the case of the shop workers, job security was mentioned first for leaving. Overall findings show that 57% of the cases related to pay matters.

Minor (1958), studied thirty-two variables to determine turnover. His study indicates that the failure to achieve their "expected wage" was the best indicator of turnover. In addition, March and Simon (1958) predict that the consequence of rewards relates negatively to the propensity to quit; the larger the amount of rewards provided by the organisation the lower the conflict between the job and the individual's self-image and subsequently the lower the turnover rate.

Additionally, Knowles (1964) points out that beside ordinary wages, payments such as bonuses, incentives, and profit sharing were introduced in an attempt to reduce labour turnover. His finding supported Paterson (1943) and Mosel and Wade's (1951) findings which found significant reductions in turnover after the introduction of such incentives.

Recently, several researchers have also suggested a negative relationship between pay and turnover (Bowey, 1972; Goodman et al., 1973; Fry, 1973; Porter and Steers, 1973). In order to justify this relationship, Bowey (1972) as cited in Price (1975:56) refers to her theory of turnover as a "process leading to labour wastage", and states that "when employees feel that their earnings are not as high as they earn in some other organisation they are likely to move to improve their earnings". His statement is supported by Armknecht and Early's (1972:33) statement that "one should certainly expect low-paying industries to experience higher quit rates since their employees are most likely to find higher paying jobs and have less to loss by quitting".

Additionally, Federico et al. (1976) in their study, demonstrate that higher salary is correlated with the length of service. On the other hand, higher salary and the difference between expected and actual salary is correlated with short length of service. Evidence of this phenomenon can also be found in Bassett (1967). Similarly, Hillriegel and White (1973) discovered that turnover has more negative attitudes toward pay than nonturnovers and also reported significant increases in pay on their new jobs.

Other studies by Lafitte (1958) found that dissatisfaction with pay was an influential element affecting turnover. In his study, he found that over 25% stated dissatisfaction with pay as a major reason for leaving the job. Similarly, in Hulin's (1968) study turnover among clerical workers showed a significant negative correlation between pay satisfaction and turnover. Other studies by Kraut (1975) among computer salesmen and by Mangione (1973) also arrived at similar conclusions.

In his study of the determinants of turnover, Price (1977) emphasizes that pay is not similar to satisfaction with pay. He says "Pay is the amount of money directly received by the member from the organisation, whereas satisfaction with pay is the member's social psychological response to the amount of money received. Pay is an objective variable; satisfaction with pay is a subjective variable" (p.68).

Taking the above into account, Lawler (1971) quoted in Price (1975) argue about the illusion of 'subjective comparison' in discussions of pay. This researcher argues that employees will compare the amount received by their fellow work colleagues. If the other employees who makes the comparison is more likely to think himself as being lowly paid, irrespective of the amount of pay and vice versa. The same amount of pay can thus be

imagined as being either high or low, depending on the amount of pay received by the comparison group.

In conclusion, it was found that several findings have shown that there is some relationship between pay and turnover. Therefore, the importance of pay as a determinant of turnover should not be ignored because it has been verified by several authors (Stoikov and Reimon, 1968; Burton and Parker, 1969; and Pencavel, 1970). Despite this, Price (1975:58) point out that "a sizeable amount of research indicates that the importance of pay varies among different types of employees". In supporting this statement, he refers to the studies of Goldthorpe et al. (1968) and Lawler (1971).

4.2.2.2. Promotion

There are many definitions of promotion in the literature. At the simplest level, Adam (1982:362) defines promotion as "An increase in the rank and responsibility of an employee". Another definition is given by Ammer and Ammer (1977:335) and run as follow:

PROMOTION: Appointment to a position of higher rank or a job with more responsibility or requiring more skill. It usually (but not always) is awarded in conjunction with a raise in salary.

According to Monney & Noe (1987), "the term promotion is one of the most emotionally charged terms in the field of human resource management". They state that almost all employee have positive attitude towards promotion. However, those who really wait and fail to be promoted have their egos deflated which reduces their productivity leading to their resignations.

Monney and Noe statements have been supported by Hellrigel and White's (1973) finding's. Their findings show that leavers have more negative attitudes towards promotion than stayers. Similarly, March and Mannari (1977) report a negative correlation between perceived chances of promotion and turnover. This means that employees who perceived lower chances of promotion have higher turnover.

March and Mannari finding's reinforce of those by Hulin (1968) and Kraut (1973). Both studies report a negative relationship between satisfaction with promotion and turnover. Also, similar finding was found in the study by Dunnette et al. (1973).

In conclusion, the previous factors show that there is some relationship between promotion and turnover. Most of these findings support the importance of promotion opportunities that

effect turnover, as in the study by Pettman (1973), Lawler (1973), Price (1977) and March and Mannari (1977).

4.2.2.3. Supervisory Practices

Several studies from the beginning of the 1940s have shown that there is some relationship between the nature of supervisory practices and turnover. The studies of Meltzer (1945), Giese and Ruter (1949), Fleishman et al. (1955) and White (1960) have shown that when the supervision is insufficient this could resulted to low morale and high turnover. Similarly, Knowles (1964) stresses that the supervisor play a significant part in keeping up morale which in turn effects turnover. Miller and Form (1951) as cited in Knowles (1964:28) states "the first-line supervisor is more important than any other official in determining morale and efficiency within the work group".

Supervisor is defined by the Department of Employment (Ministry of Labour, glossary of training terms, HMSO, 1967) cited in March (1979:296) as:

A person at the first or second level of the total managerial structure who in charge, whether directly or indirectly, of a particular area of operation within the organisation, and who is regularly found in the area. He is normally responsible

for making the most efficient use of the resources of men, materials and machines available to him.

For the purpose of this study it refers to those in authority spending more than 50% of the time on supervisory duties. Supervisory practices are defined in this study as: the method, system or act of supervising which the supervisors carry-out in dealing with their employees. It is also important to mention here that this study is only concerned with supervisory practices rather than any other aspect of supervision.

Several streams of research have analysed the impact of supervisory practices on turnover. With respect to this issue, Fleishman and Harris (1962) have investigated the impact of supervisory style on the turnover of production workers of a motor truck manufacturing plants. Fifty-seven production foremen and their work groups took part in this study. Their finding's showed that turnover (and grievences) were highest for those work groups whose foremen were rated low in consideration. This relationship, however, was found to be curvilinear, not linear³. Similar results also appear in

³. Fleishman's and Harris's (1962) finding reveals that the higher supervisory consideration leads to low turnover. However, beyond a certain point little relation is found between the two factors.

earlier studies by Morse and Reimer (1955) and Morse (1953).

In interpreting this, Fleishman and Harris (1962) explained that it is workers under foremen who create a climate of mutual trust, rapport, and tolerance for two-way communication with their work groups (high consideration) and are more likely to adopt higher levels of structure which is seen as being supportive and helpful. However, in a "low consideration" climate, high structure is seen as threatening and restrictive. He further states that foremen who create a high consideration atmosphere can more easily solve the problems resulting from high structure. He concludes that a lack of mutual trust and two-way communication could lead to turnover which reflects an escape from the problem situation which cannot be resolved.

Similarly, Saleh et al (1965) has also confirmed the relationship between supervisory consideration and turnover. In his survey of hospital nurses, using an ex post facto study design, he found that a lack of consideration was among the important factors affecting turnover. Similarly, this relationship has been demonstrated by Skinner (1969). Her study was carried-out in a medium-sized northern textile firm. the subject of her study were twenty one foremen and sixty four

members of their departments. Each respondent was asked to complete the Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire (SBDQ) and The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ - also used by Fleishman and Harris). Her findings reinforce those of Fleishman and Harris.

A study by Ley (1966) among male hourly paid production workers in a manufacturing company who quit in the first year of employment found a highly significant correlation between turnover and authoritarian ratings of employees' foremen. This meant that employees were more likely to quit their employment if they were assigned to more authoritarian foremen than if they are designated to a less authoritarian foremen. In this study, he pointed out that the major factor related to turnover was the degree of authoritarianism by the foremen.

Significant differences between turnovers and nonturnovers among female clerical workers with respect to satisfaction with their supervisors was found in a predictive study by Hulin (1968). Hillriegel and White (1973) and Ilgen and Dugoni (1977) findings support Hulin's Finding. Many other studies such as, those by Likert (1955) and Nagle (1964) support the theory that effective supervision is basic to employee motivation and satisfaction.

Telly et al.(1971), however, in their study shows that the supervisor's inequitable treatment is also an important factor in turnover. Their studies on hourly paid production workers found that employees who perceived greater inequity of treatment from their supervisors exhibited higher turnover. Telly et al. suggests that when an employee perceives inequitable treatment from their supervisor, he will feel frustrated and consequently will not offer his best towards the organisational goal. He further concludes that when this perceived inequity becomes enormous, he will indirectly withdraw himself from the organisation.

4.2.2.4. Peer Group Interaction

According to Porter and Steer (1973), it is useful to investigate the relationship between peer group interaction⁴ and the decision to change jobs. He shows that the interactive dynamics between the individual and his peers is one of the most influential stimuli in the socialisation process within the organisation. Furthermore, he notes that this interaction is essential for adaptation and affiliated to the work

4. Porter and Steer (1973:159) refer to peer group interaction as that which "can provide support and reinforcement necessary for adjustment and attachment to the work environment".

environment, where it provide support and reinforcement. On the other hand, failure to secure such support may influence a withdrawal from the workplace.

Such negative relationships have been shown in Clarke (1946), Brown (1956), Sawatski (1951), and Kerr et al. (1951) study. Brown, for instance, shows that lack of opportunity to develop team spirit contributes to high turnover. Whereas, Clarke, Sawatski and Kerr et al., show that lack of opportunity to talk on the job are among the factors influencing turnover. Van Zelst's (1952) study concludes that turnover rate can be reduced if the employees were given freedom to choose their working partners and group were formed according to preferred choice.

Evan (1963) infers from his findings that trainees with essential support from peer groups can handle stress and ambiguities created by a new job better than they could without such support. The importance of co-worker support in retention has also been pointed out by Farris (1971). In a predictive study among scientists and engineers, he found that perceived-low group cohesiveness was a some-what effective indicator of employee turnover.

Telly et al. (1971), in his study of hourly paid production workers, found turnover to be significantly and negatively related to the perception of inequity of the social aspects of their jobs. Outwardly, when the workers expectations in their relations with the co-workers were largely met, they were more willing to stay.

4.2.2.5. Work Unit Size

A review of the literature shows that the relationship between work unit size and turnover has been the subject of research several years ago (Porter & Lawler, 1965). In respect to this, high turnover is reported to be associated with large work unit size as noted by Porter & Lawler (1965:39):

The literature on subunit size shows that when blue-collar workers are considered, small size subunits are characterized by higher job satisfaction, lower absence rates, lower turnover rates, and fewer labour disputes.

Similarly, three reseachers who investigated the relationship between unit size and turnover among blue-collar workers found that turnover was greater in large sized units. This findings are confimed by Indek & Seashore (1961) who did a study among automobile dealership. Evidence of this phenomenon was also found in the study by Kerr, Koppelmanier, & Sullivan

(1951) and Mandell (1956)

4.2.2.6. Job Content

Porter and Steers (1973) illustrated that duties and activities of an individual's particular job can have a significant impact on his decision to quit a job. He states that these duties and activities could affect personal fulfillment, satisfaction, continual source of frustration, internal conflict, or dissatisfaction. Consequently, the role of such job-related factors could affect to turnover process.

This supports Vroom's (1964:187) statement:

Workers who are highly attracted to their jobs should be subjected to stronger forces to remain in them than those who are less attracted to their jobs. These stronger forces to remain should be reflected in a lower probability of behaviors which takes the person out of his job, both permanently and temporarily.

In supporting this, Mobley et al. (1979), notes a number of recent studies on turnover which point out that job contents have become one of the most active areas of industrial-organisational research. Porter et al. (1973) further mentions four factors including under job contents. These are (a) the overall reaction to job content (b) task repetitiveness (c) job autonomy and responsibility and (d) role clarity.

Dunnette et al.(1969), who is quoted by Porter et al.(1973), studied turnover among young managers. He found that failure to meet one's expectations toward the nature of their work appeared to be a major contributing variable in a decision to quit. Similar findings concerning the impact of the job itself on the participation decision have been found in the work of Waters and Roach, 1971; Wild, 1970; Telly et al., 1971; and Saleh et al., 1965. Similarly, Taylor & Weiss (1969) in their study reveal that turnover has been found to be inversely related to the perceived opportunity to fully utilize one's abilities on the job. All these reviews are discussed in Porter et al (1973).

Beside "Demographic and Personal Factors" and "Organisational Factors", the review of literature shows that there is another set of factors which can further be categorised as "External Factors" that influence turnover. The next section therefore, presents the theoretical backdrop for "External Factors". This variable includes:- The availability of alternative employment, the level of job vacancy, and the level of unemployment.

4.2.3. External Factors

Pettman (1975) points out that several researchers have

shown that the causal factors response for fluctuations in turnover rates are basically the internal labour markets of industrial organisations, however, the key factors influencing the level of labour turnover in any particular organisations are external to the firms. According to Pettman, these external variables are variables that the individual firms can do little to influence.

Similarly, Van Der Merwe and Miller (1971:233-234) identified these variables as "Outside factors which affect labour market and which impinge on the levels of employment". Likewise, Muchinsky and Morrow (1980) conceptualised these variables as "economic opportunities factors", whereas, William et al., (1979) categorised them as "General economic factors".

4.2.3.1. The Availability of Alternative Employment

Several studies have shown that there is some relationship between the availability of alternative employment and turnover. Much research, however, reported that higher amounts of alternatives outside the organisations are associated with higher turnover. Such relationship have been found in several studies by March and Simon (1958), Mobley (1982), Price and Mueller (1981) and Miller and Merwe (1982).

Mobley (1982), for instance, reports that there are many variables which can affect labour turnover. These include: employment and unemployment levels, job vacancy rates, gross national product, balance of trade, rate of inflation, etc. However, according to Mobley several theoretical studies have emphasized the availability of alternative employment as the most important variables affecting turnover. It has been given serious attention by many researchers as this variables has shown to have a strong impact on the decision to quit or to stay.

The impact of availability of alternative employment on turnover has also been confirmed in Miller and Merwe (1982). These authors conclude that the major factor influencing a worker's decision to quit are the availability of alternative employment. He emphasized that the workers is likely to leave his job when he has a perception that he could get a better job elsewhere outside the organisations.

Miller and Merwe (1982) support March and Simon's argument that alternative employment must be available for turnover to take place. They specify that the decision to leave is a function of the perceptions with regard to the ease and desirability of termination. Ease of termination is a positive

function of the number of extraorganisational alternatives perceived. They then conclude that when both desirability of movement and perceived ease of movement are high, individuals are more likely to terminate their employment with an organisation.

March and Simon's argument is also confirmed by Mobley et al. (1978) in their study. Mobley et al., (1978) found that the expectancy of finding an acceptable alternative associated significantly with intention to quit, which in turn associated significantly with turnover. He further concludes that the perception and evaluation of alternative employment is a crucial variable in the individual turnover process.

Several other studies which have shown that there is some relationship between the availability of alternative employment and turnover can be found in the studies by Dansereau et al., (1974), Price (1977), and Mobley (1979).

4.2.3.2. The Level of Employment

Empirical studies of the early 1950s have suggested a negative relationship between the general level of unemployment and the level of labour turnover. Such a relationship was found

in the study by Cook (1951). Cook's contention is that labour turnover can be predicted to be higher during labour shortage compared to labour surplus. His findings are supported by Behrend (1953). Behrend's findings reveal that labour turnover decreased when the level of unemployment increased. Her conclusion is that labour turnover is primarily determined by the amount of unemployment. In addition to this, she further insists that in understanding the causes of labour turnover, however, less emphasis has been put on this external factor compared to institutional factors.

The inverse relationship between turnover and the level of unemployment has been confirmed by numerous studies such as those by Rice et al., (1950), Long (1951), Tiffin & Phelan (1953), Armknecht & Early (1972) and Van Der Merwe & Miller (1975).

4.3. The Relevance of Previous Studies in Labour Turnover.

4.3.1. Limitation of a Theoretical Frame of Reference for Local Study

A review of the literature shows that there is presently little or no research carried out on factors influencing voluntary labour turnover among the different races in Peninsular Malaysia. However, some insight into the problem can

be gained from studies already conducted in the United States of America and Great Britain. It is also important to note that much of the work of previous empirical studies and theories are probably based on the experience of these older industrialised nations. In this case, some of these theories might not be applicable to less industrialised nations such as Malaysia. Therefore, it is desirable to investigate the factors influencing voluntary labour turnover in the Malaysian context. Since this study can be considered as a pioneering study in Malaysia, it will have to rely on variables that are highly and consistently accepted in many research studies.

4.3.2. The Operational Definition of Turnover

The phenomenon of labour turnover has been studied by many researchers since the 1900s with several types of definition. At the simplest level, turnover is used to describe individuals who have made a decision to leave an organisation, or have been terminated either permanently or temporarily (Landy and Farr, 1983:35).

Johannsen and Page (1975:204) define labour turnover as the "flow of workers in and out of employment in an organisation during a specified period". Additionally, Macy and

Mirvis (1983:142) define labour turnover as "a permanent movement beyond the boundary of an organisation". However, the most widely used definition cited in the literature is that of Price (1977:4). Price defines the concept of turnover as follows:

Turnover: is the degree of individual movement across the membership boundary of a social system.

Within his definition of turnover, Price clearly specifies that his concentration is on the movement of "individuals" in and out of organisations, rather than the movement of organisation into and out of communities and/or societies. In this manner, Price argues that the individual movement across the membership boundary includes "accessions" and "separations". On the other hand, "transfers" and "promotions" are excluded because it does not involve movement across the membership boundary of the organisation.

In addition, Price notes that the terms "labour turnover" in America is often used to refer to the turnover of blue-collar workers. In contrast "turnover" refers to the movement of blue-collar and white-collar workers. However, this does not seem to apply to other countries.

In conclusion, taking these definitions of turnover into

account, the term "labour turnover" in this study is defined as an individual who has voluntarily left his employing organisation, working with other firms.

It is also necessary to define "voluntary" and "involuntary turnover". This study will deal only with "voluntary" and not "involuntary turnover". This distinction has been made by The U.S. Bureau of Labour Statistics (1966) as cited in Price (1977), and by William et al., (1979) who defines "voluntary turnover" as "the individual movement across the membership boundary of a social system initiated by the individual" (i.e. of his own accord). In this case the term "quits" and "resignation" are commonly applied synonymously (Price, 1977). According to Pencavel (1970:2), the U.S. Department of Labour defines "quits" as follows:

Quits are terminations of employment initiated by employees for any reasons except retirement, transfer to another establishment of the same firm, or service in the Armed Forces. Included in quits are persons who failed to report after being hired (if previously counted as assessments), and unauthorized absences which, on the last day of the month, have lasted more than seven consecutive calendar days.

In this study "voluntary labour turnover" refers to an employee leaving the company on a voluntary basis. The term "voluntary resignation" is also commonly applied synonymously. Involuntary turnover, on the other hand is defined as a job

change not initiated by the individual - examples of which are dismissals, layoffs, and retirements, all of which are initiated by the organisations.

4.3.3. The Related Concepts of Turnover

A survey of the literature shows that Labour turnover has been a topic of discussion and study at many levels of discourse. It has received widespread attention, mainly because turnover is very costly to an organisation, and its related to job performance, morale, and productivity. Since it has received widespread attention, the concept of labour turnover is sometimes misunderstood and confused with several different labels which are alike or which give close meaning to turnover (Price ,1977).

With regard to this, factors relating to labour turnover should not be confused with several other related concepts on labour turnover. Price (1977:6) demonstrates that there are many concepts found in the literature relevant to turnover. Among them are: mobility, migration, succession, rotation, transfer, attrition, retention, reenlistment, careers, occupational choice, survival, wastage, quits, and exits.

It is not the purpose of this study to review and discuss all these related concepts, however, among the many concepts displayed above, one of the more important that needs to be looked at, in order to refine the concept of labour turnover is -"mobility". Hedburg (1967), cited in Pettman (1975) differentiates "mobility" from "labour turnover" as mobility restricts the flow into and out of the labour market, either (i) among regions or sectors or (ii) from one plant to another, while labour turnover involves separations from a single plant. As cited in Price (1977:6), Parnes (1954) differentiates seven forms of movement which are:

1. Interfirm movement, from one occupation to another or a change of employer
2. Occupational movement, from one occupation to another
3. Industrial movement, from one industry to another
4. Geographic movement, from one local area to another
5. Movement from an unemployed to an employed status
6. Movement from an employed to an unemployed status
7. Movement into and out of the labour force.

According to Parnes, turnover is one type of labour mobility which refers to "interfirm movement".

Other terms such as "leaving" are confused with turnover by several authors. Forbes (1971), for instance, refers to "leaving" as transfers-out, promotion, or interdepartment transfer. However, Carr (1972) includes such transfers as "turnover". Both authors are cited in Pettman (1975).

In conclusion, the concept of "turnover" in this study is defined as an individual who has voluntarily left his employing organisation, moving from one occupation to another or one employer to another.

CHAPTER FIVE:

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.0. Introduction

The object of this chapter is to examine the development of the research design and strategy used in this study. This development is based on several previous studies in similar fields. The research design is a means to guide the researcher in the collection and gathering of relevant data so as to solve the research problems and achieve the research objectives in this study.

First, the opening section of this chapter presents an overview of the concept of research and is followed by the research questions of this study. Next, research design and strategy, data collection, techniques used in the analysis of data, limitations and problems in research methodology are introduced. The opening section concludes with a summary of the chapter.

5.1. Defining Research

The Random House Unabridged Dictionary quoted in Chadwick,

Bahr, and Albrecht (1984) defines research as a:

"diligent and systematic inquiry or investigation into a subject in order to discover or revise facts, theories, applications, etc."

Kerlinger (1973:13) in addition, states that "scientific research is the systematic, controlled, empirical, and critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about the presumed relations among natural phenomena". In relation to this, Chadwick, Bahr, and Albrecht (1984) define both scientific or non-scientific research as a communication process. According to these authors the main aims for carrying out research is to gain information which help in making decisions. For example, scientists carrying out research in the hope of reaching decisions related to intellectual propositions which they wish to abandon or build into theory on how things or people are correlated. As for business people, research helps them in making decisions on introducing changes in the company or determining the marketability of a new product. Finally, organizational analysts are more interested in discovering factors of organisational stress or conflict which call for special managerial attention.

In conclusion, a common thesis of "research" is that it is a systematic process of investigation into a phenomenon in order to gain informations and facts and develop theories concerning the subjects which the researcher is interested in.

The following section will present the research questions

addressed in this study.

5.2. Research Questions

Specifically, this thesis sets out to answer the following questions:-

1. What are the general characteristics of voluntary labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia?
2. Are there any contrasting characteristics of voluntary labour turnover among the different races of blue-collar workers in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia?
3. What are the factors which correlate with voluntary labour turnover among blue-collar workers in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia?
4. What are the factors which correlate with voluntary labour turnover among blue-collar workers of different races in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia?
5. What are the determinant factors influencing blue-collar workers' decision to voluntarily change their employment in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia?

6. What are the determinant factors influencing the decision of blue-collar workers' of different races to voluntarily change their employment in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia?

7. Are there any differences amongst blue-collar workers in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia of different races in the subjective identification of determinant factors affecting the decision to change jobs?

8. What are the underlying reasons associated with the determinant factors and their strength in influencing voluntary labour turnover among blue-collar workers in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia?

9. What are the underlying reasons associated with the determinant factors and their strength in influencing voluntary labour turnover among blue-collar workers of different races in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia?

10. Are there any differences in the underlying reasons associated with the determinant factors influencing the decision to voluntary labour turnover among different races of blue-collar workers in the manufacturing sector in

Peninsular Malaysia?

In the following section the research design and strategy is explored.

5.3. Research Design and Strategy.

A research design is defined as:

"a plan, blueprint, or guide for data collection and interpretation - sets of rules that enables the investigator to conceptualize and observe the problem under study" (Adams and Schvaneveldt, 1985:103).

They further note that exploratory and descriptive research designs are the two very common designs in the study of social institutions and human behaviour. Other types of research designs are field studies and field experiments and laboratory study.

With regard to the study of labour turnover issues, most published research has concentrated on attempts to predict labour turnover, to explain its causes or to discover reasons for people leaving their job, or to study the consequences of turnover. This study is primarily a retrospective study on the factors influencing labour turnover. It is descriptive and exploratory in nature. It attempts to explore the factors which influence blue-collar workers' decisions to voluntarily change

their jobs. At a more detailed level it also attempts to discover differences in labour turnover amongst the three races.

This study is basically concerned with the feelings, attitudes and ideas of blue-collar workers toward voluntary labour turnover. It is carried out at a single point in time, whereby the judgement and sentiment of the entire respondents are compared. Survey research is used as the research strategy in order to accomplish the objective of this study. The survey research strategy adopted here has the following phases:-

(1) To identify the research method which is going to be used in this study.

(2) To determine the source of data which is to be used as a sampling frame i.e. a complete list of all units from which the sample is drawn.

(3) To identify a Sample of "turnover" to be the respondents.

(4) To identify adequate and appropriate Instruments for collecting data.

(5) To check and compare the answers of the respondents in order to find out the extent of reliability and frankness in respondent answers.

(6) To identify techniques to analyse data.

Details of these six phases are discussed as follow:

5.3.1. Research Method.

Before discussing the research method to be used, it is essential to determine the unit of analysis of the study. This is important in order to operate the research in a more practical way. Generally in the study of this phenomenon, several units of analysis were identified. For instance, some studies of labour turnover focus on organisations (Nicholson, Brown, and Chadwick-Jones, 1976) or individual firms (Bucklow, 1963) and industry as the unit of analysis. For the purpose of this study, however, the researcher will focus on the individual as the primary unit of analysis. The reasons for concentrating on the individual as the unit of analysis in this study is that it is in agreement with the approach of Mobley et al., (1979) that turnover is an individual behavioural choice. Furthermore, the nature of the personnel records held by organisations did not permit an analysis of the reasons which each worker gave for leaving (Detail will be discussed in section 5.3.2). Therefore, the study is looking at workers' perceptions of their jobs, in particular their views of the factors and reasons for quitting.

It is also noted that labour turnover may take place in any type of social system such as business firms, government agencies, schools, hospitals, professional associations,

prisons, labour unions, churches, and armies (Price, 1977). For the purpose of this research the focus will be exclusively on manufacturing firms.

Once the unit of analysis has been identified, the next step is to identify the most suitable method of data collection to be used in this study. There are a variety of approaches of research method used in the social science such as case study, survey, cross-sectional and longitudinal approaches (Adams and Schvaneveldt, 1985).

It is important to take note that turnover is generally a continuous process, and takes place at unpredictable times. In order to gather data for the study of this phenomenon, the data have to be collected by interviewing those employees who have experienced this sort of phenomenon. In order to accomplish the objective of this study, the most suitable data used will be based on a survey from former workers and this method is thought to be the most suitable technique adopted for the purpose of this study (Kerlinger, 1973). Since survey research was the primary method which suited this study, only this method will be discussed.

5.3.2.Source of Data

In order to determine the source of data, we first should

define the target population understudy i.e. the total of labour turnover which we wish to generalise. According to Sudman (1976) the operational definition of population should not be overdefined but has to be specific and easy to implement. The simpler the definition of the universe, the easier and less costly is the task of finding the sample. Additionally, Bailey (1978) point out that to survey the total population might be very difficult and could reduce the accuracy of data.

Taking into account this valuable consideration, the target population understudy is defined to all Blue-Collar workers in five types of manufacturing industries in three major cities in Peninsular Malaysia who had experience of voluntary labour turnover in the years from 1987 to 1989.

As the amount of labour turnover keeps increasing day to day unless the government keeps records of people leaving jobs it is impractical to estimate the population size of turnovers. In Malaysia there is no social security payment such as the "Unemployment Benefit", therefore, there is no records of those who are out of a job. Although records of unemployment levels may not identify labour turnovers.

After defining the target population, one should identify

the sampling frame which is going to be used in choosing the sample. Bailey (1978) points out that a sample could be more accurate if a sampling frame exists. For the purpose of this research, unfortunately, there is no such list of voluntary labour turnovers in Peninsular Malaysia.

In undertaking this study, the researcher found that none of the relevant Government Departments in Malaysia could provide a useful sampling frame on voluntary labour turnover which would suit the purpose of this study. Among the relevant departments which had been approached by the researcher are The Malaysian Ministry of Human Resources, Malaysian Industrial Development Authority, State Economic Development Cooperation, Statistic Department and Social Security Organisation. It appears that one of the problems of doing research in most developing countries is the lack of useable sampling frame for research. Due to the lack of this basic data, the researcher is unable to determine the extent of the sampling biases in his study. As a result, the researcher ended up by using which ever source(s) he could find in constructing a sampling frame for the purpose of this study.

Based on the researcher's experience, labour turnover lists are generally unavailable except in big companies. Most companies did not maintain a complete list of labour turnover.

Some did not maintain up-dated personnel records, and most records were arranged manually. To put together an adequate sampling frame is not an easy task. Furthermore, the unwillingness of most companies to co-operate for underlying reasons of the company's morale, confidentiality or time constraint led to some limitations for this research.

Taking this into consideration, the researcher has identified three sources of data which could be compiled to construct a sampling frame that could be used for the purpose of this study. First, it is derived primarily from a list of voluntary labour turnover in the personnel record of the related firms and secondly, from the list of those who have voluntarily resigned from other firms and joined the present company, which can also be obtained from the personnel records. Finally, data can be obtained from knowing the individual who has experienced turnover in that period and through personal introductions. It should be mentioned here that the survey data which will be gathered in this study is confined to the years commencing January 1987 and ending December 1989.

The problem of data collection from these three sources is that it could lead to listing a respondent more than once. The danger of this is that it might multiply the probability of selection. In order to avoid this problem, it is useful for the

researcher to only use one source.

If the first source is used, it is practically impossible to secure a complete or accurate list due to limited cooperation from the organisation. Moreover, some of the employees have left the organisation, working in other places or leaving the state. In this case they might not be contacted because they may also have changed their addresses. It is not easy to assess their current addresses for those who had migrated to other states. Another disadvantage of selecting the first source is that the researcher has to travel throughout large geographical regions which is very expensive and time consuming.

The advantages of using the second source is that the respondents can be easily contacted, it is less costly and takes less time. This, however, could only be carried out with the full support from the managements concerned.

Using the third source, might be very costly, time consuming and the possibilities of getting a suitable respondent is very difficult. It is based on the cooperation of their friends.

In conclusion, then, the second source was used in this research because it appears to be the most practical in providing valid data to tackle the research problem.

Additionally, it provides the easiest, and least costly method of undertaking this research.

After the objectives of this research and sources of data have been clearly defined the next step is to determine the sample.

5.3.3. The Sample

This section deals with the selection of a suitable sample for this research. This includes the number of respondents to be selected and the practical aspects of contacting respondents. In choosing the sample, the specific purpose of this study is to see if any different factors influence the labour turnover decision amongst the different races in Peninsular Malaysia. Therefore, the unit of analysis is the individual blue-collar worker of different races who had experience of voluntarily turnover. Once the unit of analysis has been clearly determined, the next decision involves establishing the characteristics of the sample that should be taken into account that suit the purpose of this study. The following criteria for choosing this sample should be considered:-

- a) Group of workers as the unit of analysis
- b) Type of race.
- c) Type of industries involved.

d) Geographical area covered.

e) Time frame.

Based on the above criteria, the sample needs to be identify based on the following phases:-

1) The first phase of selection of a suitable sample is to identify a Sample of "voluntary labour turnover" from a selected group of workers.

As noted in Price (1977) turnover may include several forms of organisation and group of workers. For the purpose of this study attention will only be paid to the Blue-Collar group of workers. The main reasons justifying such a choice is that the bulk of turnover is from this group of workers and this group of workers is the one that gives most problems to the organisations which need immediate attention in Peninsular Malaysia (Malaysian: Employment Trend, 1989a, b). Additionally, the studies are confined to these categories because financial considerations meant that our attention had to be restricted to one small subgroup of productions workers.

In this study "Blue-Collar Workers" is the unit of analysis. It will be defined according to major groups 7 to 9 in the Directory of Occupational Classification (Malaysia:

Manpower Department, 1980:170) as follows:

workers in this major group are engaged in or directly associated with the extraction of minerals, petroleum and natural gas from the earth and their treatment; processing, assembling and shaping various substances to manufacture articles or produce goods; the construction, maintenance and repair of various types of roads, structures, machines and other products; manufacturing glass and clay products; handling materials, operating transport and other equipment; and performing other labouring tasks requiring primary physical efforts.

This focus, however, includes only shop-floor rather than supervisory level workers. A list of Blue-Collar workers from which respondents of the survey come from are shown in Exhibit 5-1 as attached in Appendix One.

2) The second phase is to select a suitable sample by identifying a sample of voluntary labour turnover based on different races.

In this study three different races were carefully identified and chosen, namely: Malay, Chinese, and Indian. These are the three major races in Peninsular Malaysia and constitute 99.35 per cent of the total population (Malaysia: Yearbook, 1989c). The identification of race is based on the respondent's self reporting.

3) The third phase is to identify a sample of labour

turnovers from different types of industry in the manufacturing sector.

For the purpose of this study, the fieldwork was to cover five types of industry in the manufacturing sector namely, Wood, Textile, Electrical and Electronic, Food and Rubber. The manufacturing sector will be defined according to Malaysia Industrial Classification (updated) (1971:20) as follow:

Manufacturing is defined as the mechanical or chemical transformation of inorganic or organic substances into new products whether the work is performed by power-driven machines or by hand, whether it is done in a factory or in the worker's home, and whether the products are sold at wholesale or retail.

The firms identified under Wood, Textile, Electrical and Electronic, Food and Rubber industries are also classified according to the definition stated in Malaysia Industrial Classification (Updated) 1972 (Malaysia: Department of Statistics, 1972). The firms involved in this research are those manufacturing companies with factories located in Johor Bahru, Kuala Lumpur and Penang (as defined in phase 4 in this section), although their head offices may be located elsewhere.

The idea of choosing this type of industry is related to it's contribution to the Malaysian economy and is important in terms of job creation. These industries are estimated to generate most of the new jobs in 1989. Rubber-based industry is

estimated to generate 30.7% of total new jobs, electrical and electronic industry - 22%, woodbased industry - 14.6% and textile industry estimated to generate 10.6% of the total (Malaysia: Employment Trend, 1989b).

Manufacturing companies were emphasised in this study because of their contribution to the Malaysia economy as describe in chapter one and two.

4) The fourth phase is to identify a SAMPLE based on the area to be covered.

It would be useful if the research could cover all the cities in Peninsular Malaysia. However, this idea would only be realistic if factors such as manpower, time and finance were not a constraint. After taking into account these limitations, this reasearch only managed to cover three cities as its research location. These three different cities are: Kuala Lumpur, Johore Bahru and Penang (Georgetown).

Six criteria were used to choose these cities as research locations. First, these cities were found to have most of these three groups of races of blue-collar workers (Please refer to Table 3-3 in Chapter Three). Second, these three major cities are experiencing the highest rate of labour turnover (Please

refer to Table 1-1 in Chapter One). Third, beside being the three largest cities in Malaysia, they are the center for most social, economic and political activities in the country which could attract a large number of workers to work in. Fourth, based on its geographical location, it is reasonable to choose three different locations to make a better comparison. The three different locations are in the north, middle and south of Peninsular Malaysia. Fifth, because of their similarities in economic contribution, these three cities are characterized as commercial cities. Finally, these cities are relatively sophisticated with good infrastructure, communication system, a well educated population which understands and is used to the needs of research. Consequently data collection is made more practical and successful.

Based on these six criteria, Kuala Lumpur, Johor Bahru and Penang were chosen¹. The area to be covered in these three cities are their free trade zones. In the Johor Bahru area to be covered are those factories located in Senai, Skudai, Pasir Gudang, Johor Bahru town, and Larkin. In Kuala Lumpur, the areas to be covered are Kuala Lumpur industrial area, Klang Valley-Petaling Jaya and Shah Alam. In Penang the areas include

¹. The researcher realises that although six criteria were used, weaknesses still exist because this is based on the convenient sampling or the so called "Judgement Sampling". See Babbie (1986).

the Bayan Lepas Free Trade Zone (Phase I, II, and III) and Bayan Lepas Non-Free Trade Zone.

5) The fifth phase is to identify a SAMPLE of turnover based on a specific time frame.

Different studies measure turnover over different periods of time. March and Mannari (1977) for example, collected their turnover data over a four years period. Other studies have looked at turnover over a matter of weeks (Newman, 1974). Whereas Water and Roach (1979) investigated the relationships of several factors for a sample of employees over two one year period. For the purpose of this study, since it is a retrospective study, the survey data which was gathered is confined to a period of three years. In other words, the sample will be selected among those who have experienced at least once in the years January 1987 to December 1989 voluntary labour turnover. This time frame was selected because at this period (early 1987 to toward end of 1989) this sector was experiencing serious problems in recruitment and retention of Blue-Collar workers. Another reason is because of the economic climate during this period; In early 1987 Malaysia experienced her economic recovery from recession. The economic outlook improved steadily where there were no retrenchments, and employment opportunities increased consistently.

Next, after the criteria of the sample has been determined, the next section is to decide the sample size for this study. This is important because the sample size selected must be sufficiently large to permit useful results and provide the necessary degree of representativeness. It also involved minimal costs and time. This will be discussed in the next section entitled "sample size".

5.3.3.1. Sample Size

Most researchers face problems in determining adequate sample size to be collected. Although it seems simple and straightforward, it is however the most difficult part to be handled accurately (Sudman, 1976). Researchers have suggested several ways to solve this problem (Cochan, 1963; Sudman, 1976; Bailey, 1978). However, these researchers tend to agree that the size of the sample required depends on the nature of the population, the purpose of the study and the resources available.

In determining an adequate sample size, Bailey (1978) suggested that it is more useful to deal with few samples but with a more careful interview. The idea of dealing with smaller sample sizes is based on the belief that it is easier to supervise interviewer, follow-up matters, finding respondents,

shorter periods of time, avoiding the influence of external events during the study, achieving greater response rates and greater cooperation from respondents. In addition, Babbie (1986) notes that using larger sample sizes, provides larger problems of record keeping, and more paperwork which might lead to greater error.

In deciding this, it is important to note that there are several ways or techniques for determining sample size. However, most of the literature discusses as to whether the technique deals with fixed or sequential sampling. To employ the fixed-sized technique, Bailey (1978) for instance, points out the number 30 is considered by many researcher could be the minimum size of a sample. Others opt for a minimum sample of 100 units. Other researchers such as Chadwick, Bahr, & Albrecht (1984) encourage the selection of at least 200 cases. Similarly, Sudman (1976) points out that the number of a sample which is most suitable for unfunded Doctoral Dissertation Research usually ranges from 200 to 300.

Taking this into account, for the purpose of this study the technique that has been employed is fixed-size sampling with a size of approximately 300 respondents. In conducting a survey of labour turnover Ley (1966) used 100 respondents. Whereas Koch and Steers (1978) carried out a sample consisting

of only 77 respondents.

The sample size in this study is limited by the cooperation of firms, time and costs factors. As discussed above in section 5.3.2, the population size cannot be estimated, no effort will be made in that line. It is however, essential that the sample size should be sufficiently large to yield meaningful results for making generalisations about the entire sample under study. For this study, the aim is to achieve not less than 30 respondents for each of the races. This is in line with what has been recommended by Bailey (1978).

In conclusion, the sample size required for this study is based on the nature of the population, the topic being studied, the completeness of the sampling frame, and the resources available to the researcher.

5.3.3.2. Sampling Design

Most research studies suggested there are basically two forms of sample design known as the probability and non-probability design. Both types of design, however, have the same function that is to select individuals from the population in a suggested way so that it could generalise the whole population under study.

Bailey (1978) illustrated that small project studies normally used non-probability sampling. This author insists that the unquestionably disadvantages of non-probability sampling is that the chances of a respondent to be selected are not known. Consequently, the finding of nonrandom samples cannot be generalised to the larger populations. The advantage of non-probability sampling, however, is that it is less complicated, and less expensive.

It seems that in most cases, researchers in most Third World Countries face the difficulty of utilising probability sampling technique. Comparatively, this is because most developing countries could not provide sufficient sampling material. For instance, the researcher himself faced this experience in looking for an adequate sampling frame of voluntary labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia which was going to be used for the purpose of this study (This has been discussed in section 5.3.2).

If the sampling frame does not exist, the researcher is not able to employ probability sampling design in his study. As discussed in Bailey (1978); to employ probability sampling methods, each individual has a known chance of being included in the sample. Therefore, it is compulsory to place every individual in the survey population on a sampling frame. This

however, is impossible to apply in this study because the population lists are generally unavailable except in selected industries and areas. To overcome this problem, the sampling method which suits the study are nonprobability or purposive in nature, that is, samples are chosen based on the judgement of the researcher. The researcher was not able to apply the actual principle of sampling selection in his study due to the fact that his sample was totally coloured by the willingness of each firm and person concerned to cooperate. Moreover, the time limitation and financial constraint limits the use of the actual principles of sampling selection.

In conclusion, the sampling design of this research is therefore a non-probability sample. It involves the personal judgement of the researcher during the selection process.

5.3.4. Data Collection

5.3.4.1. Review of Modes of Data Collection.

There are a variety of methods of data collection which can be used for a specific type of research design. In survey research, the most common mode of data collection widely used in the literature is questionnaire, interview or telephone. The following section will discuss briefly how the three methods work and when it is appropriate to use them to obtain reliable

and complete information for the study of voluntary labour turnover. At the end of this section, a conclusion on method that is most suitable with the purpose of this study would be drawn.

(i). Interview

Toedt et al., (1962:117) suggested three purposes of doing interview: "(1) to discover facts, (2) to give information, and (3) to motivate the interviewee". In practice, there are several methods exist for conducting an interview. Certain types of interview which are considered relevant to this study are discussed as follow:

(a). Personal Interview (Face-to-face Interview).

This technique is one of the most basic forms of gathering information. Adam and Schvaneveldt (1985:201) noted that "an interview regardless of type or form is that the respondent is orally presented with questions". Survey research normally use personal interviews as the basic method of data gathering.

In the study of labour turnover, the personal interview is conducted by approaching a sample of individuals face-to-face who have undergone certain experiences of voluntary labour

turnover. This technique permits the interviewer to ask selected former employees who have experience of voluntary labour turnover to take part in the study.

Generally in conducting personal interview, there are two broad forms of interview suggested in most literature (Kerlinger, 1964; Nachmias et al., 1976):

- (i). Standardised interview or Schedule-structured and
- (ii). Unstandardised interview or Nonschedule-structured.

According to Nachmias et al., (1976) the standardised interview is the most structured form of interview. In this form of interview, the questions, their sequence and wording are fixed and are equivalent for each respondent. According to these authors (p.101):

this is done to make sure that when variations appear between responses, they can be attributed to the actual differences between the respondents, not to the interview. The researcher attempts to reduce the risk that changes in the wording of questions, for example, might elicit differences in responses.

In addition, Kerlinger (1964) noted that in standardised interview, the question asked has to be well prepared to elicit information relevant to research question.

Another form of personal interview is the unstandardised interview. This type of interview is more open and flexible. It

is completely unstructured. The interviewer was given only a topic with no written question prepared in advance (Bailey, 1978). During the interview, the respondents are allowed considerable freedom in expressing their interpretation of a situation that is applied to them (Nachmias et al., 1976). Basically, in unstandardised interview the questions asked were guided by the research purposes. The interviewer is free to express the content, sequence, and wording of the question, constructing the questions as it goes along which he feels fit to particular respondents and questions as to obtain perfect or meaningful information (Kerlinger, 1964).

Among the main advantages of personnel interview is that the interviewer can inform the purpose of the study, and can create rapport which leads to a higher participation rate. It also could produce better quality of data where a skilled investigator can "read" people, evaluate the mood of the respondent and further search more information in a variety of ways (Adams and Schvaneveldt, 1985). Other advantages of personal interviews are that it is possible to observe and rectify the respondent's misunderstanding. Also it could examine inadequate or vague responses and control the order of questions in obtaining complete and meaningful data (Kidder et al., 1986).

Despite the many advantages of this mode of data collection, it should be noted that such techniques may also bring certain disadvantages. The primary disadvantage of personal interview is that of its high cost. To conduct personal interviews with former employees sometime after leaving their jobs would not be easy. It required the researcher to travel throughout large geographical areas which would be expensive in terms of time and finance. Besides their high cost, the "interviewer effect" is another disadvantage of personal interview. The interviewer's expectations or personal characteristics could produce some tendency to shape the data (Kidder et al., 1986).

In developing countries, to elicit reliable and sound information on voluntary labour turnover, personal interviews would be considered the most practical method. This is because most of the lower levels of blue-collar workers in the developing countries have little or no education background. To a large extent, personal interview tends to have better response rate than any other techniques. Persons who are unable to read and write can still answer questions in the personal interview. Interviewers can explore for more specific answers and can repeat the questions when necessary.

(b). Exit Interview.

The Exit Interview (also called "termination interview") is another broadly acceptable instrument which is used to find out what is causing the employee to quit their job. According to Habbe (1952) the exit interview is conducted by asking an employee before leaving, about the actual reasons for their decision to leave. Before an employee leaves the organisation, the supervisor will refer him/her to the personnel department where he is requested to answer some questions pertaining to his reason for leaving. They are allowed to express their feeling about the job and work causing to their decision to leave. At the end of the interview the interviewer will fill in "The General Personnel Recommendation Form" and then the "Exit Interview Report" which stated the reason for leaving.

Similarly, Hilb (1978:327-328) stressed that:

"All exit interviews should be done on the last working day of the departing employee, on a voluntary basis, in the same room, in a relaxed atmosphere (e.g. over a cup of coffee), and without any disturbance from outside the office".

If this is done, then it could provide valid, reliable, and efficient data using this feedback method.

The exit interview, as a technique, however, has probably generated information of questionable validity and reliability.

Generally, when the exit interview takes place it could help to identify the reasons for the employee's departure. On the one hand, employees' good cooperation and replies during the interview may yield some useful insights. On the other hand, the employees may hesitate to indicate their real reasons for leaving. They sometimes react emotionally, and give false reasons instead of indicating the actual reason for leaving. Also, sometimes the employees might leave without giving any prior notice and in this case the personnel department would have no opportunity to interview them (Heneman and Kern, 1956).

Additionally, Pigors and Myers (1981:222) noted the following flaws in conducting exit interviews:

- * Often, reasons for leaving are multiple, and employees cannot easily put them into words.
- * Sometimes, the chief reason is one which the employee thinks would prejudice an employer if and when future references are desired.
- * Again, internal stress may make it impossible for employees to talk freely even to a sympathetic listener.

(ii). Telephone Survey.

Telephone interviews are another device for data-gathering. It is also known as an impersonal method of collecting information in survey research (Nachmias et al., 1976). The main advantage of the telephone interview is

that "one does not have to leave the work setting and venture out to find people; one merely needs a directory, questions, and the phone to obtain extensive amounts of research data" (Adam and Schvaneveldt, 1985:219). Additionally, Kidder et al., (1986) notes that telephone interviews offer a high response rate, better quality of data, high speed and lower cost depending on geographic area.

In Malaysia, a telephone survey would be a most impractical method of obtaining reliable information on voluntary labour turnover, especially among blue-collar workers (group 7, 8, and 9). This group of workers is among the lower and medium strata of the society and only a few of these households in Malaysia have telephones. Therefore, few potential respondents could be reached. Moreover, in Malaysia, telephone interview tends to be more expensive than any other techniques because of the high telephone charge rates.

(iii). Questionnaire: Post-Exit Questionnaire

According to Adam and Schvaneveldt (1985:202) a questionnaire is "a list or grouping of written questions which a respondents answers". Smith (1975) as quoted in Adam and Schvaneveldt (1985:202) define a questionnaire as "a self-administrated interview". A written questionnaire is conducted

by mailing or handing to the respondent a set of written questions which he or she has to fill in without any help from the interviewer (Bailey, 1978). In the study of labour turnover, the most common questionnaire used is known as "Post-exit questionnaire". This is described briefly as follow:

Post-Exit Questionnaire is also called as "The Post-Terminal Questionnaire" and is comparatively a new technique (Gaudet, 1958). It is introduced as an effort to overcome the weakness of exit interview (such as the hesitation of employees to indicate their real reasons for leaving, and to those who left without giving any prior notice). It is much the same as exit-interview except that it is conducted by mailing to the employee's home at a later date after he\she has left their job (Heneman and Kern, 1956). It is less costly and is also believed that it could provide more frank answers as the respondents have left the organisation (Gaudet, 1958). Toedt (1962) insists that the disadvantages of this technique are that the problem of obtaining current addresses of the employees who have left the organisation. Another disadvantage is that this technique produced a low rate of return from those employees whose new addresses are accessible.

In conclusion, after having analysed all the modes of data collection suggested above, the structured personal interview

method is the one to be adopted in this study. In the structured personal interview, a questionnaire (also known as "interview schedule" [Bailey, 1978]) was used as an instrument of data collection but was not given directly to the respondent. It was filled up by the researcher during face-to-face interviews with the respondents. This technique was selected because it was found to be the most suitable and practical method to investigate factors which influence workers' decision to leave their jobs in Peninsular Malaysia. It is important to mention that the respondents in this study are among those with lower education level in the country. It is necessary for the researcher himself to fill up the questionnaire so as to ensure all questions are answered. Any misunderstanding could be clarified immediately during the interview.

If this method is conducted appropriately, it would accommodate an accurate information and would promote an accurate evaluation of factors affecting voluntarily labour turnover from their previous employment. Furthermore, it is the most practical method in providing valid data to investigate the phenomenon under study, compared to other methods. It is important to note that since no sampling frame exists which can be used for the purpose of the study in this country, it is better for the researcher himself to conduct face-to-face

interviews to ensure the completeness of all the answers needed. This is done due to the fact that it might be difficult to get enough respondents for the purpose of statistical analysis.

Other methods such as exit interviews were not selected because labour turnover happens at unpredictable times, such information was very difficult or infact impossible to obtain because the limitation of this study was that it was conducted at a particular time. With regard to telephone interview, it was not selected because the use of the telephone was still not very widespread among the respondents, since most of them do not have telephones at home. The Post-exit questionnaire was not used because it is not easy to get hold of the present addresses of former employees if available.

In order to understand this issue more clearly, it is useful to use combination of several methods. In this case, a personal interview which combined the employees and employers views are also useful. To a large extent, this technique could also help to check and compare the answers of the respondents in order to find the extent of reliability and frankness in respondent answer.

In order to obtain a reliable result, the personnel

managers (department) will be interviewed at a final stage of this study. They will be interviewed to compare their views based on their experience of factors influencing voluntary labour turnover among blue-collar in Peninsular Malaysia. This method is considered useful in determining the extent of reliability and the frankness in respondent's answers. A combination of these two methods would also be useful in verifying the agreement and perception between the Personnel Managers and the experienced employees on the factor affecting turnover. It is therefore, to see whether the personnel manager's perception of why employees quit differs from the reasons of employee turnover as reported by employees'.

5.3.4.2. The Instruments

Since much of the information needed to accomplish the objective of this study is primarily concerned with the feelings, attitudes and ideas which could not be obtained from any other sources of data than the individual Blue-Collar worker who had experienced voluntary labour turnover themselves, the data for the research is drawn from a survey of workers. As discussed in section 5.3.4.1 of this chapter, the mode of data collection which is most suitable for the purpose of this study was structured personal interview and is supported by structured questionnaires as its main instrument.

Data collected and gathered from the structured questionnaires are used mainly to answer the research questions and for generalisation purposes. The questionnaire design will be discussed in detail in the following section.

5.3.4.3. Questionnaire Design

The data related to the research objectives are collected through the use of these two research instruments (questionnaires) to suit the purpose of this study. It is designed to gather the factual information and responses related to particular attitudes and perception towards voluntarily turnover.

The instruments designed in the collection of profile data and general information associated with factors influencing turnover employed a simple coded questionnaire. It was designed either in multiple-choice or Likert-type format. The practice of using open-ended questions has been restricted because of problems of coding. The questions were derived from two sources: First, from the literature review and secondly from the result of a pilot study conducted by the researcher in January 1990. The design of each questionnaire is discussed briefly as follows:

(i) Blue-Collar Workers' Questionnaire:

This questionnaire which contains four sections was designed to measure the degree to which the subjects feel that one or more of the factors strongly influenced their decision to change jobs. All items represent statements to which the subject responds on 5-point Likert-type scales, ranging from "strongly agree" (5) to "strongly disagree" (1)². The wording of each item is reversed in an attempt to reduce response bias. Items in these questionnaires are mostly of the close-ended type. The first set is divided into four sections as described below:-

Section A entitled "General factors" consists of four questions asking the location of the respondent's previous and present occupation and type of previous and present industry they were working with. In the first and second questions the respondents can choose four options of answers. In the third and fourth question there are six choices. Respondents were asked to tick the most suitable answer. However, in the final survey the questionnaires were filled in by the researcher.

Section B entitled "Demographic and Personal factors"

². Five-point Likert-type Scale is used. It is reliable and allows shorter period of time to administer. See A.L. Edwards and K.C. Kenney (1946).

consists of sixteen items (questions): thirteen items concerning demographic factors; one item asking for the number of voluntarily resignations which is used to measure turnover; and two items concerning personal factors. Respondents were given a multiple-choice answer for each question, and were asked to tick the most suitable answer.

Section C entitled "Organisational factors"; in question 21, consists of nine organisational factors which are thought as having influenced workers' decision to voluntarily leave their previous occupations. Respondents were asked based on their opinion to tick the extent of their agreement and disagreement toward these factors as having influence their decision to quit. Each factor presents five options from which the respondent can chose to answer. Each options is represented by a number of dimensions employing a five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from "Strongly agree" to "Strongly disagree". The number of high grades (5) reflects the degree of agreement toward the factor as having influence their decision to turnover.

Questions 22 to 30 consist of question asking the underlying reasons to turnover. Numbers of underlying reasons for each factors are as following:

1. Pay (5 reasons)

2. Promotion	(5 reasons)
3. Supervisory Practices	(5 reasons)
4. Peer Group Interaction	(6 reasons)
5. Work Unit Size	(1 reason)
6. Job Content	(4 reasons)
7. Job Security	(4 reasons)
8. Working Conditions	(3 reasons)
9. Working Hours	(2 reasons)

Section D entitled "External factor" consists of six questions. Respondents were asked questions about the extent they thought three external factors had influenced their decision to voluntarily leave their previous job.

Respondents were asked to describe their perception toward each variable by ticking the most suitable questionnaire response. Initially, the questionnaires were designed in English. but, since most of respondents did not understand English, the questionnaire was then presented in the respondents' own National Language (Bahasa Malaysia). It was translated by a language expert. To ensure the reliability of the translation, the Malay Language was then translated back into English by another language expert. It was not difficult to translate the questionnaire since most of the terms are commonly used in Malaysia. (Copies of questionnaires are shown in Appendix Two - the English version and Three - the Malay version).

(ii) Personnel Managers' Questionnaire:

In addition to the Blue-Collar Workers' Questionnaire, another questionnaire called "Personnel Managers' Questionnaire" will be used to assess the extent of reliability and the frankness in respondent answers. A number of personnel managers, were given questionnaires to state their opinions of the problems of turnover in the light of the variables under study. It is interesting that such opinions comply with what the respondents had stated themselves. (Copies of the questionnaires are shown in Appendix Four - the English version).

5.3.4.4. Timing of Data Collection

The actual data for this research can only be gathered from those changing their jobs in Peninsular Malaysia itself. It is important to note that since the funds for carrying out this research are solely drawn from the researcher's resources, minimising travelling back to Malaysia is necessary because of the expenses. However, to obtain complete information, several trips back to Malaysia cannot be avoided. In undertaking this study, the researcher had to return home three times. The first return is for the purpose of preliminary study (see Appendix Six) followed by the second return which is to carry-out the

pilot and actual study (See Appendix Seven). The final return is to seek more information to fullfill the gap for the purpose of data analysis (See Appendix Eight).

(i). The Preliminary Study

The preliminary study was carried out in two months (1st March to 30th April 1989). The purpose of this study was to check on the availability of certain kind of information and to develop contacts with organisations which may be prepared to be involved with the research. To obtain better cooperation for the purpose of this study, support letter from supervisor was enclosed when contacting the firms concerned (See Appendix Six). The result of this preliminary study revealed several important issues related to this study:

1) There was no specific lists of voluntary labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia which can be used for the purpose of a sampling frame. Eventhough the researcher had approached most government agencies - Malaysian Ministry of Human Resources, Malaysian Industrial Development Authority, Statistic Department, State Economic Development Coperation and social security Organisation - none of them could produce this most basic data. In addition, in most companies, turnover lists are generally unavailable except in the big corporations.

2) Most companies approached wished to keep information about their company's rate of voluntary labour turnover confidential.

3) Most managements advised that the questions should not reflect on the image of the particular company or explore sensitive areas subject to legal action or benefit the trade unions.

This preliminary finding produced useful information in guiding the researcher to carry-out the pilot and actual study.

(ii). The Pilot Study

The pilot study was conducted over two weeks in January 1990. The objective was to determine whether each question was meaningful, easy to understand, and interesting so that in some way it could motivate the respondents to answer the questions. It was also to make sure that none of the questions were sensitive and thus cause problems during the interview. Moreover, it also provided a useful test for the means of data gathering.

In addition, the pilot study was carried out to estimate the time to complete the questionnaire and to experiment with

the layout, format and sequence of the questions. It also helped as a foundation to assess the response rate toward the questionnaire.

The first step of the pilot study begins with contacting the management of the selected firms. They were contacted either by telephone or personal meeting with the researcher. During the contacting period, the researcher introduced himself as a lecturer at the school of Management, University Sains Malaysia, and as a Ph.D student at the University of Stirling, Scotland, undertaking a survey on the factors affecting labour turnover in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia. In seeking full cooperation from the firm concerned, he stressed that the results of the study would hopefully be of great use for both the private and public sector, especially for the future policy making of these establishments. Since most managers seemed to look for a benefit from cooperation, the researcher promised to give them a copy of the findings when he completed his study. This "Barter trade" was considered useful by the researcher for the following reasons: First, the researcher manage to keep a good rapport with the companies. Secondly, response bias could be avoided because the companies treated this study as their own project to investigate problem of turnover in their own companies.

After gaining permission from the firms concerned, the pilot study begins by interviewing and administering the questionnaire to a small group of respondents. To secure an accurate picture, it was performed by the researcher himself. At this stage, the researcher received all comments and suggestions either from the employees or the management of each firms involved. This is done to avoid unreliable questions and also to minimised bias during carried out the actual survey.

At the begining of the pilot study, the questionnaire was distributed to each respondent for self-completion. The respondent were asked to fill up the questionnaire in the same day and return back to the researcher upon completion. Later, with the advice of most personnel manager and the respondent opted to be interview by the researcher, the questionnaires were finally administer by the researcher himself. This was due to the fact that they had little or no educational background.

For the purpose of the pilot study, two firms (Food and Textile firms in Johor Bahru) were chosen. At this stage, questionnaires were administered to 20 participants (10 per firm) who had previously changed jobs at the same time 2 interviews were also administered to the respective Personnel Managers.

Since the questionnaire was administered by the researcher himself, none of the respondents participating in the pilot study raised any major difficulty in understanding the questions during the personal interview. Even though there were some minor problems in understanding the questions. They were solved easily at the right time. When the response indicated that the respondent misunderstood, the questions were repeated in a different manner until the researcher explored more specific answers. This technique helped the researcher get a better response rate in a developing country, such as Malaysia, where most of the production workers have little or no education.

There were no problems of time for each interview as it took an average of thirty minutes to complete the questionnaire. The results of the pilot study however, indicated that minor changes needed to be made. After the interviews, revisions and minor modifications were made.

Data collection from the personnel managers established that there were fewer problems in the completion of the questionnaires compared to their workers. Clearly their education level is better than that of their workers. Beside creating less problems during the interviews and discussion, the personnel managers provided some valuable recommendations

on how to obtain better information based on a more appropriate presentation of some questions during the personal interviews.

Following the pilot study and taking into account all the problems and recommendations posed during the study, the final version of the questionnaire was more acceptable for obtaining data from either the workers or personnel managers in the actual survey.

(iii). The Actual Survey

The actual data was collected as scheduled in a two and a half month period from February to March 1990. The instruments were administered by the researcher to the subjects in the following way:-

(a) Contacting the Relevant Companies

From January 15 until January 30 1990 the researcher contacted the personnel manager of each of the selected companies. At this stage, the management of each firm concerned was informed of the nature of the survey: namely that this study was to explore the factors that influenced the decision by blue-collar workers' of different races to voluntarily change their jobs. This would involve collection of data from

blue-collar workers in the five types of industries. In contacting each firm and obtaining permission to administer the questionnaire, the researcher introduced himself as a lecturer at the School of Management, University Sains Malaysia, Penang and a Ph.D student at the University of Stirling. Beside that, covering letters from supervisor, University Sains Malaysia, and Johore State Government which invited the management of the firms concerned to participate and give co-operation to the researcher were also presented to the management of each company (See Appendices Nine, Ten, and Eleven).

Having obtained approval, the personnel managers were asked to select at random a sample, based on the chosen criteria, (discussed in section 5.3.3), to be interviewed. The number in the samples to be released by the organisations will be based on their convenience and availability of data. It is important to note that most companies do not like to disturb their production and furthermore most of the records were kept unsystematically. Therefore, the number of samples are totally dependent on the availability of data for each organisation.

(b) Contacting the Respondents

From February 1st until March 30 1990, a sample of 300 was contacted and 222 (74%) participated in the survey. They were

interviewed during and after working hours, depending on the permission given by of the personnel manager concerned.

Before starting the interview, the workers were informed of the nature and objectives of the study by their management and the researcher himself. They were told that the questionnaire was completely anonymous and their individual responses would never be revealed to the company. Although their names and addresses were requested with the explanation that the researcher wanted them for the follow-up matters.

About 10% of the respondents did not want to give their full names and complete addresses due to concerns over their job security. Of the 300 sample expected, 222 (74%) participated in the survey. The largest percentage of non-participants were either on vacation or ill during the interview period.

In the final survey, forty-five firms were selected to participate from whom two hundred and twenty two workers and forty-one managers were interviewed. The procedures employed (such as contacting firms, presentation and supporting letters) in this actual study were the same the one carried out in the pilot study.

In the next section the analytic procedures and techniques employed in the survey will be outlined and explained in detail.

5.3.5. Data Analysis.

For the purpose of data analysis, standard statistical techniques will be used. Data obtained from the interviews were transferred to the computer and the SAS (Statistical Analysis System) computer package was used in processing and analysing data. A number of non-parametric tests were performed on the data. These include:

(i). Univariate Statistics / Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics such as the frequency distributions, mean scores of variables and standard deviations and cross-tabulations were used to describe the data.

(ii). Bivariate analysis / Relationship between factors

Bivariate analysis was used to described the relationship between "correlate factors" and turnover, this is to see whether it is significant or not significant. Significant level which is use is 0.01 and 0.05. Significant level 0.01 was accepted but was treated as weak relationship. To measure the association between these two variables, two statistical test

will be used. Nonparametric correlation computes Spearman Rank-Order correlation. On the other hands, when two variables are in different levels of measurement, i.e. nominal vs. ordinal, the Analysis of variance will be used to measure the relationship and strength.

(iii) Differences between quantitative variables

Duncan's F-Test was used to see if there are any differences between the variables.

5.4. Limitations and Problems in Research Methodology

This research accepted the reality that every method has its own weaknesses. In order to overcome these weaknesses, several combinations of quantitative and quanlitative analysis were used.

Research on organisational behaviour requires a longer period of time and cooperation from the firm and employees involved to get the relevent answers. Data collection was scheduled for only three months, therefore, it needed good preparation, especially in terms of financial ability, transportation and communication facilities and most importantly public relations. The researcher not only has to deal with secretary of the personnel manager, but to persuade

them that this research could benefit the company and the country. In certain cases the researcher has to seek relatives and friends who has contact with the relevant companies but also gain help from the Ministry of Labour, the Malaysian Industrial Development Authority and the State Officer and Customs Officers.

Time scheduled to meet several personnel managers was wasted due to urgent meetings or unschedule agenda which needed immediate attention by them. In the case of facing delays by the personnel manager, the researcher sought help from the State Governments and Custom Officers in Johor Bahru. Since the researcher is a lecturer in the University Sains Malaysia which is located in Penang, there were fewer difficulties in this area. However, because of the lack of contact in Kuala Lumpur, the researcher did not received the hoped for cooperation.

In addition to this problem, response bias in selection of the respondent cannot be avoided. It is known that there is a possiblity that the personnel managers involved selected workers whom they believed would project a positive image of the organisation. However, the possibility of such a bias arising has been reduced as much as possible (Already discussed in page 206) and because the workers' perceptions reflect their experiences while working elsewhere.

Another problem faced by the researcher is some respondents are not willing to be interviewed, because they feared losing their jobs. For the same reason, the respondents requested not to tape or take notes of the conversation or discussion beyond the questions set in the questionnaire during the face-to-face interview. This is also because of the sensitivity of the issue which is racial in characteristic. Therefore, taping of interview sessions as an alternative to note taking was dropped. For the Non-Malay respondents, the questionnaire written in English has to be used. In one case in particular in Johore Bahru (name of company is not to be revealed) the respondent a Chinese who does not understand either Malay or English was provided by the organisation with a translator to respond to the questionnaire. However, this was very rare.

5.5. Summary

The research approach adopted in this study is descriptive and exploratory in nature. The approach chosen is determined by the lack of research in the area of factors influencing voluntary labour turnover among different races in Peninsular Malaysia. Data for this study was collected through surveys of former workers who have left at least one organisation and joined their current employer.

Since the sampling frame does not exist, the most suitable sampling method for the purpose of this study is nonprobability or purposive in nature. It is based largely on the cooperation of the firm and employee involved. The technique for data collection employed in this study is the structured personal interview. A questionnaire (interview schedule) is used as an instrument of data collection. It is filled up by the researcher during face-to-face interview to ensure all the questions are answered. This technique is chosen because the respondents in this study have a relatively low educational background.

For the purpose of processing the data, Statistical Analysis System computer package is used. Among the test utilised to analyse the data include descriptive statistics, bivariate analysis such as Spearman Rank-Order correlation and Analysis of Variance. Whilst Duncan F-Test is used to see if there are any differences between the variables and races.

CHAPTER SIX:

THE FINDINGS

6.0. Introduction

This chapter aims to display the findings of the statistical analysis of data collected by the survey instruments in this study. The presentation of these findings is divided into two parts. Part I will exhibit the findings of the analysis of data collected from the Blue-Collar Workers Questionnaires. Whereas Part II will presents the findings of data collected from the Personnel Managers Questionnaires.

Part I

The Findings of the Blue-Collar Workers Questionnaire

The purpose of this part is to reveal the findings of the data collected from the Blue-collar Workers Questionnaire. It will be presented according to the sequence of the research questions. Comprehensive explanation, clarification and discussion of the findings are retained for chapter Seven. Data obtained from the survey was coded and transferred the computer. The SAS (Statistical Analysis System) computer package was used in processing and analysing the data.

In the process of analysing the data, several statistical methods were used which made it possible to achieve the research objectives. According to their appropriateness, a range of statistical techniques were used to analyse the survey data: univariate analysis (such as frequency distributions, percentage and means), One Sample Test, and Bivariate analysis (such as a one-way ANOVA, and Spearman Rank-Order correlation).

A large portion of the analysis used simple descriptive statistics such as percentages, frequencies and means. These simple descriptive statistics were computed to describe the profiles of the respondents, and the agreements of the respondents toward factors influencing their decisions' toward voluntary labour turnover. In addition, a One Sample Chi-Square Test was used to test whether the responses of the respondents differed in frequency.

In order to measure the relationship between two variables, bivariate analysis such as Spearman Rank-Order Correlations and Analysis of Variance were used. Finally, the Duncan F - Test will be utilised to test the differences between the means of the three races towards several variables.

All statistical results were tested at both the .05 and .01 level of significance. The results of the present study

will be presented in the following section.

6.1. Presentations of the Research Questions and Results.

This section presents the results of the study. The profile of respondents will be presented first, followed by the stated research questions. Finally, the results obtained will be presented.

6.1.1. Analysis of the Profile of the Respondents

This section will present a brief descriptive analysis of the sample data. It is noteworthy that this sample is not random (See Section 5.3.3.2), however, it bears reasonable resemblance to the populations of Malaysia. The Malaysian population is characterised by the Malays as the majority group and the Chinese and Indians as the minorities. It is thus, quite acceptable to expect that the respondents that had been sampled as in this case resemble the general population characterised as above.

In the selection of the sample, three types of races, namely Malay, Chinese, and Indian were involved. These three races were selected from three major cities in Peninsular Malaysia. They were Kuala Lumpur, Johor Bahru and Penang

(discussed earlier in detail in Section 5.3.3 of Chapter 5). The following sections therefore, describe the distribution of the sample.

In the final survey of the present research, a total of 222 respondents participated. Table 6-0 reveals that out of the 222 respondents interviewed, the majority of them were Malay (63.96 %, $n = 142$). The non-Malays were divided equally between the Chinese (18.02 %, $n = 40$) and Indian (18.02 %, $n = 40$). Due to the fact that the population of the Chinese and the Indians relative to the Malays are small, it is not unexpected, therefore, that the sample should include lower percentages for these two racial groups.

From Table 6-0, one can also see the distribution of respondents according to the research location. It is noted that 22.07 % ($n = 49$) of the total 222 respondents interviewed were from Kuala Lumpur, 42.79 % ($n = 95$) from Johor Bahru and 35.14 % ($n = 78$) from Penang.

The majority of the Malay respondents were from Johor Bahru and Penang comprising of 23.87 % ($n = 53$ for each state) of the total sample. For the Chinese and Indian, the majority were from Johor Bahru. They accounted for 7.66 % and 11.26 % respectively. Given the good response and cooperation from

respondents experienced in Johor Bahru, it is expected that most of the three races participated in this study (42.79 % of the total respondents, $n = 95$) were from this city. The variation of response from the three cities is expected as already discussed in the methodology chapter (Refer to Section 5.4 of Chapter 5).

TABLE 6-0.

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS,
BY LOCATION OF PREVIOUS OCCUPATION AND RACE.

Location\ Race	Total		Malay		Chinese		Indian	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Kuala Lumpur	49	22.07	36	16.22	11	4.95	2	0.90
Johor Bahru	95	42.79	53	23.87	17	7.66	25	11.26
Penang	78	35.14	53	23.87	12	5.41	13	5.86
Total	222	100.00	142	63.96	40	18.02	40	18.02

6.1.2. RESEARCH QUESTION 1: WHAT ARE THE GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?

Seven observable variables were used to answer this research question as follows:-

- a. Present age of the respondents
- b. Length of service with last employer
- c. Marital status of respondents
- d. Respondents' sex
- e. Level of education achieved by respondents
- f. Total number of dependents
- g. Number of Voluntary Resignation Since Intial Employment.

The analysis on each variable will be presented in the next sub-section 6.1.2.1.

6.1.2.1. Analysis of the Present Age of the Respondents.

Table 6-1. shows that the largest single age group in the sample were within the 20 to 24 years age group (43.2%, n = 96). Whilst the smallest group (0.9%, n = 2) were from the 45 and above age group.

TABLE 6-1.

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING AGE DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE

Age \ Race (In Years)	Malay			Chinese			Indian			Total	
	n	%	%	n	%	%	n	%	%	N	%
15 to 19	23	10.4	(16.20)	3	1.4	(7.50)	0	0.0	(0.00)	26	11.7
20 to 24	62	27.9	(43.66)	17	7.7	(42.50)	17	7.7	(42.50)	96	43.2
25 to 29	27	12.2	(19.01)	11	5.0	(27.50)	12	5.4	(30.00)	50	22.5
30 to 34	17	7.7	(11.97)	6	2.7	(15.00)	10	4.5	(25.00)	33	14.9
35 to 39	9	4.1	(6.34)	2	0.9	(5.00)	1	0.5	(2.50)	12	5.4
40 to 44	3	1.4	(2.11)	0	0.0	(0.00)	0	0.0	(0.00)	3	1.4
45 above	1	0.5	(0.70)	1	0.5	(2.50)	0	0.0	(0.00)	2	0.9
Total	142	64.0	(100.00)	40	18.0	(100.00)	40	18.0	(100.00)	222	100.0

(The figures in brackets reveal the percentage rate out of each race)

6.1.2.2. Analysis of Length of Service With Last Employer of the Respondents

Table 6-2, shows that the largest group (44.1%) of the sample was found among those whose length of service with their last employer was 6 months or less. Those who had served 12 months or less with their last employer, accounted for 68.9% of the total voluntary labour turnover in this research. This means that those with shorter periods of service with their last employer tend to change job more frequently. The same Table also shows that the smallest group of respondents (2.7%)

have length of service records with their last employer amounting to 25-30 months.

TABLE 6-2.

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING LENGTH OF SERVICE DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE

service \ Race (In Months)	Length of Malay			Chinese			Indian			Total	
	N	%	%	N	%	%	N	%	%	N	%
0 to 6	62	27.9	(43.66)	22	9.9	(55.00)	14	6.3	(35.00)	98	44.1
7 to 12	37	16.7	(26.06)	8	3.6	(20.00)	10	4.5	(25.00)	55	24.8
13 to 18	12	5.4	(8.45)	2	0.9	(5.00)	5	2.3	(12.50)	19	8.6
19 to 24	9	4.1	(6.34)	2	0.9	(5.00)	3	1.4	(7.50)	14	6.3
25 to 30	5	2.3	(3.52)	1	0.5	(2.50)	0	0.0	(0.00)	6	2.7
31 to 36	6	2.8	(4.23)	3	1.4	(7.50)	1	0.5	(2.50)	10	4.5
37 or more	11	5.0	(7.75)	2	1.0	(5.00)	7	3.2	(17.50)	20	9.0
Total	142	64.0	(100.00)	40	18.0	(100.00)	40	18.0	(100.00)	222	100.0

(The figures in brackets reveal the percentage rate out of each race)

6.1.2.3. Analysis of Marital Status of the Respondent

Table 6-3 reveals that the majority of the sample are single workers. They account for 65.3% (n = 145) of the total. The figures also show that those who are married with no children account for 26.0%. These percentages, however, are reversed for those married with children, and the divorced or widowed groups where they constitute only 8.1% and 0.9% respectively.

TABLE 6-3.

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING MARITAL STATUS DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE

Marital Status \ Race	Malay			Chinese			Indian			Total	
	n	%	%	n	%	%	n	%	%	n	%
Single	93	41.9	(65.49)	30	13.5	(75.00)	22	9.9	(55.00)	145	65.3
Married/Child	11	5.0	(7.75)	3	1.4	(7.50)	4	1.8	(10.00)	18	8.1
M/No children	38	17.1	(26.76)	7	3.2	(17.50)	12	5.4	(30.00)	57	26.0
Divorce/Widowed	0	0.0	(0.00)	0	0.0	(0.00)	2	0.9	(5.00)	2	0.9
Total	142	64.0	(100.00)	40	18.0	(100.00)	40	18.0	(100.00)	222	100.0

(The figures in brackets reveal the percentage rate out of each race)

6.1.2.4. Analysis of the Sex of Respondents

The results of this survey as shown in Table 6-4 reveal that considerably more than half of the respondents (68 %, n = 151) were female (the latter 32 % (n = 71) were male).

TABLE 6-4.

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING SEX DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE

Sex \ Race	Malay			Chinese			Indian			Total	
	n	%	%	n	%	%	n	%	%	n	%
Male	48	22.0	(33.80)	10	5.0	(25.00)	13	6.0	(32.50)	71	32.0
Female	94	42.3	(66.20)	30	13.5	(75.00)	27	12.2	(67.50)	151	68.0
Total	142	64.0	(100.00)	40	18.0	(100.00)	40	18.0	(100.00)	222	100.0

(The figures in brackets reveal the percentage rate out of each race)

6.1.2.5. Analysis of Level of Education Achieved by Respondents

In general, slightly less than half (45.5 %, n = 101) of all the respondents had obtained an upper secondary qualification (Malaysian Certificate of Education). A further

4.1 % (n=9) had achieved "others" education level and 9 % (n = 20) with Technical School Certificate qualifications. However, only 0.9 % (n = 2) of the respondents had not obtained any form of formal education and 12.2% (n = 27) had only managed to achieve standard six or lower education. Generally, this means that those with an upper secondary qualifications are disproportionately represented in this sample of voluntary labour turnover.

TABLE 6-5.

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING LEVEL OF EDUCATION DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE

Level of Education\Race	Malay			Chinese			Indian			Total	
	n	%	%	n	%	%	n	%	%	N	%
No Education	0	0.0	(0.00)	0	0.0	(0.00)	2	0.9	(5.00)	2	0.9
Standard 6	12	5.4	(8.45)	7	3.2	(17.50)	8	3.6	(20.00)	27	12.2
L.C.E.	34	15.3	(23.94)	17	7.7	(42.50)	12	5.4	(30.00)	63	28.4
M.C.E.	72	32.4	(50.70)	12	5.4	(30.00)	17	7.7	(42.50)	101	45.5
T.S.C.	18	8.1	(12.68)	2	0.9	(5.00)	0	0.0	(0.00)	20	9.0
Others	6	2.7	(4.23)	2	0.9	(5.00)	1	0.5	(2.50)	9	4.1
TOTAL	142	64.0	(100.00)	40	18.0	(100.00)	40	18.0	(100.00)	222	100.0

(The figures in brackets reveal the percentage rate out of each race)

6.1.2.6. Analysis of Number of Dependent of the Respondents

A study of Table 6-6, shows that the majority of the sample have 1 to 5 dependents. Those with 1 to 5 dependents account for 84.7% of the total respondents, compared to 15.4% for those with dependents of 6 or more. Those respondents interviewed who have one dependent contributed the largest percentage (29.4 %). On the contrary, those with seven

dependents account for 2.3% of the total respondents. This study shows that increases in number of dependents are related to decreased tendencies to voluntary labour turnover. Age is likely to be a factor in this.

TABLE 6-6.

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING NUMBER OF DEPENDENT DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE

Number of Dependent\Race	Malay			Chinese			Indian			Total	
	n	%	%	n	%	%	n	%	%	N	%
1	42	19.0	(29.79)	14	6.3	(35.00)	9	4.0	(22.50)	65	29.4
2	21	9.5	(14.89)	5	2.3	(12.50)	5	2.3	(12.50)	31	14.0
3	28	12.7	(19.86)	7	3.2	(17.50)	9	4.1	(22.50)	44	20.0
4	16	7.3	(11.35)	3	1.4	(7.50)	6	2.7	(15.00)	25	11.3
5	13	5.9	(9.22)	4	1.8	(10.00)	5	2.3	(12.50)	22	10.0
6	9	4.1	(6.38)	5	2.3	(12.50)	4	1.8	(10.00)	18	8.1
7	2	0.9	(1.42)	1	0.5	(2.50)	2	0.9	(5.00)	5	2.3
8 or more	10	4.5	(7.09)	1	0.5	(2.50)	0	0.0	(0.00)	11	5.0
TOTAL	141	63.8	(100.00)	40	18.0	(100.00)	40	18.0	(100.00)	221	100.0

(The figures in brackets reveal the percentage rate out of each race)

6.1.2.7. Analysis of Number of Voluntary Resignation Since Initial Employment of the Respondents

A study of Table 6-7. shows that most of the voluntary labour turnover (45.05%, n =100) in this study had only one voluntary resignation since initial employment. Whilst the smallest group were from those with 5 and 6 voluntary resignation since initial employment which accounts for 1.35 %, n = 3 respectively.

TABLE 6-7.

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING NUMBER OF VOLUNTARY RESIGNATION SINCE
INITIAL EMPLOYMENT DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE

Number of Resignations\ Race	Malay			Chinese			Indian			Total	
	n	%	%	n	%	%	n	%	%	N	%
1	66	29.73	(46.48)	15	6.76	(37.50)	19	8.56	(47.50)	100	45.05
2	42	18.92	(29.58)	18	8.11	(45.00)	13	5.86	(32.50)	73	32.88
3	21	9.46	(14.79)	2	0.90	(5.00)	6	2.70	(15.00)	29	13.06
4	10	4.50	(7.04)	2	0.90	(5.00)	2	0.90	(5.00)	14	6.31
5	2	0.90	(1.41)	1	0.45	(2.50)	0	0.00	(0.00)	3	1.35
6	1	0.45	(0.70)	2	0.90	(5.00)	0	0.00	(0.00)	3	1.35
TOTAL	142	63.96	(100.00)	40	18.02	(100.00)	40	18.02	(100.00)	222	100.00

(The figures in brackets reveal the percentage rate out of each race)

6.1.3. RESEARCH QUESTION 2: ARE THERE ANY CONTRASTING CHARACTERISTICS OF VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG THE DIFFERENT RACES OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?

The seven observable variables presented in section 6.1.2. were also utilised to answer this research question. The following sections display the findings of each variable.

6.1.3.1. Analysis of Voluntary Labour Turnover by Age and Race.

The data obtained and presented in Table 6-1 revealed that more than 40% of the respondents of each race are between 20 and 24 years of age. The data reveals that the pattern of percentage distribution among the races within this age group was almost the same.

It is noteworthy that there were significantly more Malays (16.20%, n = 23) than Chinese (7.5%, n = 3) and Indians (0 %, n = 0) within the youngest group, 15-19 years: in fact more than twice as many Malays as Chinese and Indian within this group. In addition no-one from the Indian group was found within the age group of 15 to 19 years.

The data in Table 6-1 shows that the smallest single age groups in the sample of the three races shows no differences at all. The data establishes that as age increases, the frequency, of labour turnover decreases. The group with the lowest level of voluntary labour turnover among these races were within the 40 and above age group (Malay - 2.81%, n = 4; Chinese - 2.50 %, n = 1; and Indian - 0.00%, n = 0). The survey concludes that most of the voluntary labour turnover in this survey involves young workers.

6.1.3.2. Analysis of Length of Service of the Respondents by Race.

Table 6-2. shows that the highest levels of voluntary labour turnover were found amongst those who had served 6 months or less with their previous employer. In addition there was little difference in the pattern of length of service within the different racial groups. For the Chinese, the biggest group was found amongst those who had served with their

previous employer for 6 months or less (55.0%, n = 22). Almost similar distribution was found among the Malays (43.66%, n = 62), and the Indians (35.0%, n = 14).

6.1.3.3. Analysis of Marital Status of the Respondents by Race.

Table 6-3, shows the breakdown of the marital status of the Malay, Chinese and Indian. The results demonstrate that marital status for the races is roughly the same. Among the Malay respondents 65.49% (n = 93) are single. A similar pattern of distribution were found among Chinese (75.0%, n = 30) and Indian (55.0%, n = 22). The data shows that the largest groups of each of the three races were "single" and "married with no children".

Conversly Table 6-3, shows that the smallest group of respondents in each of the three races was found in the "married with children" and "Divoced or Widowed" group. The figures shows 5.0% (n = 2) of the Indian was found in group "Divoced or Widowed". On the contrary, none of the Malays and Chinese respondents were divorced or widowed.

6.1.3.4. Analysis of Respondents by Sex and Race

Table 6-4 shows that women have a higher representation in

the sample of voluntary labour turnover than men, and the proportions are broadly the same for the three races. Out of the Malay respondents 66.2% (n = 94) are female. Similarly, 75% (n = 30) of the Chinese and 67.5% (n = 27) of the Indian respondents are female.

6.1.3.5. Analysis of Level of Education Achieved by Race

Table 6-5 reveals that none of the Malay and Chinese respondents were without any kind of formal education, but 5% (n = 2) of the Indian respondents were without any education. With regards to higher educations, most of the Malay and Indian respondents seem to have better education than the Chinese. Amongst the Malays, 50.7% (n = 72) were found with Malaysian Certificate of Education (M.C.E) qualification. A similar pattern of distribution (42.5%, n = 17) was found among the Indians. On the other hand, most of the Chinese (42.5%, n = 17) had the Lower Certificate of Education (L.C.E) qualification.

6.1.3.6. Analysis of Number of Dependent of the Respondents by Race

Table 6-6, shows that 29.79% (n = 42) of the Malay, and 22.5% (n = 9) of the Indian respondents have one dependent (Number of dependent was measured by the number of respondent's family who are depending on him. For instance, respondent's

wife, children or parents. For the purpose of this study, the respondent is considered as a dependent). Analysis shows that a slightly higher percentage (35%, $n = 14$) of the Chinese respondents have one dependent. On the other hand, those with a large number of dependents represented the lowest percentage of our respondent. For instance, 1% of the Malays had 7 dependents and 2% of the Chinese had 8 or more dependents.

Analysis shows that those with the highest rates of the voluntary labour turnover among the three races have few dependents.

6.1.3.7. Analysis of the Number of Voluntary Resignations Since Initial Employment of the Respondents by Race

A study of Table 6-7. shows almost the same pattern was found in the number of voluntary resignations since initial employment among the three races. The largest single groups of respondents were found among those who had resigned once since their initial employment, i.e., for the Malays 46.48%, for the Chinese 37.50% and for the Indians 47.5%. Conversely, the smallest groups of respondents were those with five or six resignations since their initial employment, for example 0.70% of the Malay. None of the Indian respondents has six Voluntary resignation since initial employment. Among the Chinese the smallest group was found among those with five experience in voluntary turnover since initial employment.

6.1.4. RESEARCH QUESTION 3: WHAT ARE THE FACTORS WHICH CORRELATE WITH VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?

This research question involves the examination of the relationship between one independent variable, demographic factors¹ and the dependent variable, turnover. A paradigm of seven studied variables defines the independent variable as follows:-

Demographic Factors:

Variable One : Age
Variable Two : Length of Service
Variable Three : Marital Status
Variable Four : Sex
Variable Five : Total No. in the Family
Variable Six : No. of Dependent
Variable Seven : Level of Education.

The dependent variable turnover was defined as number of resignations since initial employment.

Bivariate Statistical Analysis is used to describe the relationship between "correlate factors" and turnover. To measure the association between the independent and dependent variables, two statistical tests will be used and are described as below:

¹. Also called as "Correlate Factors". Price (1977:24) states that the correlate variables are "the indicator to which turnover is related...A commonly used term whose meaning is equivalent to correlate is demographic variable". In addition, Porter (1973: 164) states that these variables are "unique to the individuals which appears to have a significant impact on the problems of turnover".

(a) Spearman Rank-Order Correlation.

For the purpose of this research question, the Spearman Rank-Order Correlation procedure will be used to measure the correlation between any two variables which are at the same level of measurement (ordinal or numeric variable). Additionally, it is most commonly used to measure nonparametric correlation. It is utilised to measure the strength of the relationship and can also be used to test the significance of the relationship between variables.

(b) Analysis of Variance

On the otherhand, when two variables are in different levels of measurement i.e. nominal vs ordinal or interval, the most suitable statistical tool is the Analysis of Variance. This technique is designed to test the differences between the means of several groups of scores. The means of groups of scores are tested by calculating the statistic F which compares the variability between individual scores within the group.

Table 6-8 displays the correlation of voluntary turnover with demographic factors. From the table, the Spearman Rank-Order Correlation is used to compute the association of five demographic variables with voluntary labour turnover. They are

as below:

- a) Age
- b) Length of Service
- c) Total Number in the Family
- d) Number of Dependent
- e) Level of Education

Even though "marital status" and "sex" were also categorised as demographic variables, they were omitted from this statistical test because these two variables were at different levels of measurement with the dependent variable (turnover). Therefore, the most suitable statistical tool for the computation of the association of these two demographic variables with voluntary labour turnover is the One-Way Analysis of Variance. It which will be presented in page 236.

DISPLAY OF FACTORS WHICH CORRELATE TO TURNOVER

TABLE 6-8.

CORRELATION OF VOLUNTARY TURNOVER WITH
DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA

items	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Significant Level (p)
Age	.22	.001 (S *)
Length of Service	-.05	.500 (N.S)
Total No.in the Family	.02	.750 (N.S)
No. of Dependent	-.01	.895 (N.S)
Level of Education	.02	.774 (N.S)

* Significant at $p < .01$

Table 6-8 above shows the Spearman rank-order correlation on the relationship between five demographic factors and number of voluntary resignations. The results of the statistical analysis indicate that age was found to be significantly correlated with the number of voluntary resignations. The statistical computation for the two variables produced a significant correlation coefficient (r) value of 0.22 at the 0.01 level of confidence.

On the otherhand, from Table 6-8, it is evident that there is no significant relationship between length of service, total number in the family, number of dependent and level of education with number of voluntary resignation either at 0.01 or 0.05 level of confidence.

Table 6-9 displays the bivariate findings between age and frequency of resignation since initial employment. From the cross-tabulation between these two variables it is evident that as age increases, the number of the sample decrease. At the age 15-19 (11.71 %, $n = 26$), and at the age 45-49 (0.90 %, $n = 2$). Similarly. as the number of resignation increases, the number of sample also descreases. The figures show that those who have resigned once account for 45.05% ($n = 100$) and as the number of resignations increase to 6 times the number in the sample decreases (1.35%, $n = 3$). This finding confirms the results of

the Spearman rank-order correlation which suggests that there is a positive relationship between age and the frequency of resignations since initial employment.

TABLE 6-9.

DISPLAY OF BIVARIATE FINDING BETWEEN AGE AND TURNOVER
FOR BLUE-COLLAR WORKER IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA (Cross-
Tabulation between Number of Voluntarily Resignation
Since Initial Employment by Age).

FREQUENCY PERCENT								TOTAL
	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	
	19	43	23	10	4	1	0	100
1	8.56	19.37	10.36	4.50	1.80	0.45	0.00	45.05
	4	37	11	14	5	1	1	73
2	1.80	16.67	4.95	6.31	2.25	0.45	0.45	32.88
	2	10	9	6	1	1	0	29
3	0.90	4.50	4.05	2.70	0.45	0.45	0.00	13.06
	0	5	5	3	1	0	0	14
4	0.00	2.25	2.25	1.35	0.45	0.00	0.00	6.31
	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	3
5	0.45	0.00	0.45	0.00	0.45	0.00	0.00	1.35
	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	3
6	0.00	0.45	0.45	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.45	1.35
	26	96	50	33	12	3	2	222
TOTAL	11.71	43.24	22.52	14.86	5.41	1.35	0.90	100.0

Beside the Spearman Rank-Order Correlation analysis, the One-Way Analysis of Variance is also used to describe the association between two demographic variables with voluntarily resignation. The two variables are as below:

- a) Sex
- b) Marital Status

Table 6-10 below displays the results of the Analysis of Variance test on sex groups. These techniques are used to test the significant differences between the means of the two groups of variables (Male and Female) toward number of voluntary resignations. Differences between the two means of groups of score are tested by calculating the statistic F which compares the variability between individual scores within the group.

TABLE 6-10.

ANOVA Table for Testing Differences Between
Two Sex Groups Means in Voluntarily Turnover
in Peninsular Malaysia

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARE</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Group	1	1.6907	1.6907
Within Group	220	256.1290	1.1642
F Value = 1.45 p < .23			

DISPLAY OF THE TWO MEANS:

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
Male	71	2.03	A
Female	151	1.84	A

MEANS WITH THE SAME LETTER ARE NOT SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT

Table 6-10. reveals that although the mean for male (2.03) is higher than the mean for female (1.84) respondents in this

study, our result obtain from the Duncan F - Test indicate that statistically there is no significant difference among the means of the two group, where $p < 0.23$. The obtained value of $F=1.45$ is larger at both the 0.05 and the 0.01 levels of significance for d.f.'s = 1 and 220. Therefore, it is conclude that there is no significant difference among the means of the groups. In other words statistically, the mean scores of the frequency of voluntary labour turnover among male and female participating in this study are not significantly different.

The computation of Duncan F - Test on Marital Status variable with the frequency of voluntary resignations is shown in Table 6-11 below. The table shows that there is no significant difference between the means rating for the four marital status groups in number of voluntary resignations. The statistical computations on the means of the marital status groups shows that the means of "Divorce or Widowed" group rank the highest (2.50) compared to "Married with No Children" (1.98), " Single" (1.87) and "Married with Children" (1.83) group. The Duncan F-test results, however, statistically indicates that there is no significant difference amongs the means of the four group, where $p < 0.77$. The obtained value of $F=0.38$ is larger at both the 0.05 and the 0.01 levels of significance for d.f.'s = 3 and 218. Therefore, it is conclude

that there is no significant difference among marital status groups means in the number of voluntary job changes.

TABLE 6-11.

ANOVA Table for Testing Differences Between
Four Marital Status Groups Means in Voluntarily
Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARE</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Group	3	1.3270	0.4433
Within Group	218	256.4928	1.1766

F Value = 0.38 $p < .77$

DISPLAY OF THE TWO MEANS:

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
Divorce/Widowed	2	2.50	A
Married/No child	57	1.98	A
Single	145	1.87	A
Married/Children	18	1.83	A

MEANS WITH THE SAME LETTER ARE NOT SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT

6.1.5. RESEARCH QUESTION 4: WHAT ARE THE FACTORS WHICH CORRELATE WITH VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS OF DIFFERENT RACES IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA ?

Question four of the present study aims to find out whether there is a significant relationship between demographic factors (independent variables) and the number of voluntary resignations (dependent variable) among three different races in Peninsular Malaysia. Similar statistical tools used in research question three will be utilised here. Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient (rs) is appropriate to five demographic variables namely; age, length of service, total number of individuals in the family, number of dependents, and the level of education. The finding obtained from the statistical analysis is displayed in Table 6-12 below.

DISPLAY OF FACTORS WHICH CORRELATE TO TURNOVER AMONG DIFFERENT RACES.

TABLE 6-12.

CORRELATION OF VOLUNTARY TURNOVER WITH DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS BASED ON RACE.

ITEMS	MALAY		CHINESE		INDIAN	
	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Significant Level (p)	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Significant Level (p)	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Significant Level (p)
Age	.25	.01 (S *)	.27	.08 (N.S)	.05	.75 (N.S)
Length of Service	.01	.91 (N.S)	-.02	.92 (N.S)	-.26	.09 (N.S)
Total No.in the Family	-.02	.78 (N.S)	-.08	.62 (N.S)	.25	.11 (N.S)
No. of Dependent	-.08	.35 (N.S)	.16	.32 (N.S)	.08	.62 (N.S)
Level of Education	.08	.36 (N.S)	-.02	.91 (N.S)	-.19	.25 (N.S)

* Significant $p < .01$

** Significant $p < .05$

Table 6-12 above, shows that out of five demographic variables among the three races tested through the Spearman

rank-order correlation, only one variable was found to significantly correlated with the number of voluntary resignations. Table 6-12 shows that age of the Malays correlates significantly with the number of voluntary resignations at $p < .05$, $r = .25$. No other variables were found to correlate with voluntary resignations among the Malay group.

Regarding the Chinese, the statistical analysis above shows that none of the demographic variables were found to have a significant correlation with the number of voluntary resignations. The relationship for Indians reveals similar findings to that of the Chinese.

Table 6-13 below displays the bivariate finding (cross-tabulation) between age and turnover among the Malays to support the Spearman Rank Correlation results. As the age of the Malay respondents increases, the number of respondents decreases. Similarly as the number of resignations increase, the number of respondents decrease. The figures reveal that Malays who have resigned once since their initial employment account for 46.48 % ($n = 66$), as the number of resignations increase to 6 times, the numbers in their sample decrease proportionately (0.7%, $n = 1$). Similarly, in the 15-19 age group, the sample of respondents account for 16.20% ($n = 23$). However for the age group 45-49 the sample decreases to 0.70%

($n = 1$). These findings support the computation of the Spearman rank-order correlation as discussed above.

TABLE 6-13.

DISPLAY OF BIVARIATE FINDING BETWEEN AGE AND
TURNOVER FOR MALAYS (Cross-Tabulation between
Number of Voluntarily Resignation Since Initial
Employment by Age).

f (%)	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	TOTAL
1	18 (12.68)	27 (19.01)	12 (8.45)	4 (2.82)	4 (2.82)	1 (0.70)	0 (0.00)	66 (46.48)
2	2 (1.41)	24 (16.90)	3 (2.11)	8 (5.63)	3 (2.11)	1 (0.70)	1 (0.70)	42 (29.58)
3	2 (1.41)	8 (5.63)	5 (3.52)	4 (2.82)	1 (0.70)	1 (0.70)	0 (0.00)	21 (14.79)
4	0 (0.00)	3 (2.11)	5 (3.52)	1 (0.70)	1 (0.70)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	10 (7.04)
5	1 (0.70)	0 (0.00)	1 (0.70)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (1.41)
6	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	1 (0.70)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	1 (0.70)
TOTAL	23 (16.20)	62 (43.66)	27 (19.01)	17 (11.97)	9 (6.34)	3 (2.11)	1 (0.70)	142 (100.0)

Beside the Spearman Rank-Order Correlation, the One-Way Analysis of Variance is used to describe the association between sex and marital status with voluntary labour turnover among the different races. Table 6-14 below displays the results of the Analysis of Variance test on sex and Table 6-15 displays the results on marital status of the different races.

TABLE 6-14

ANOVA Table for Testing Differences Between
Two Sex Groups Means in Voluntary Turnover
in Peninsular Malaysia : By Race

MALAY

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARE</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Group	1	7.1478	7.1478
Within Group	140	152.4155	1.0876

F Value = 6.57 p < .01

DISPLAY OF THE TWO MEANS:

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
Male	48	2.21	A
Female	94	1.73	B

MEANS WITH THE SAME LETTER ARE NOT SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT

CHINESE

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARE</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Group	1	0.0333	0.0333
Within Group	38	65.8667	1.7333

F Value = 0.02 p < .89

DISPLAY OF THE TWO MEANS:

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
Male	30	2.07	A
Female	10	2.00	A

MEANS WITH THE SAME LETTER ARE NOT SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT

INDIAN

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARE</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Group	1	2.9351	2.9531
Within Group	38	28.0399	0.7379

F Value = 3.98 p < .50

DISPLAY OF THE TWO MEANS:

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
Male	27	1.96	A
Female	13	1.38	A

MEANS WITH THE SAME LETTER ARE NOT SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT

Table 6-14. shows that for the Malays, the mean for males (2.21) is higher than the mean for females (1.73). The Duncan F - test indicates that statistically there is a significant difference among the means of the two group, where $p < 0.01$. the obtained value of $F = 6.57$ is smaller at both the 0.05 and the 0.01 levels of significance for d.f.'s = 1 and 140. It is possible to conclude that there is a significance difference among groups means for the Malays. On the other hand, the result of the Duncan F-Test Grouping indicate that statistically there is no significant difference among the means of the two group for the Chinese and Indians.

TABLE 6-15

ANOVA Table for Testing Differences Between
Four Marital Status Groups Means in Voluntary
Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia: By Race

MALAY

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARE</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Group	2	0.9521	0.4760
Within Group	139	158.4634	1.1400

F Value = 0.42 p < .65

DISPLAY OF THE TWO MEANS:

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
Married/No Child	38	2.02	A
Married/Children	11	1.91	A
Single	93	1.84	A

MEANS WITH THE SAME LETTER ARE NOT SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT

CHINESE

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARE</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Group	2	0.0762	0.0380
Within Group	37	65.8238	1.7790

F Value = 0.02 p < .98

DISPLAY OF THE TWO MEANS:

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
Married/No Child	7	2.14	A
Single	30	2.03	A
Married/Children	3	2.00	A

MEANS WITH THE SAME LETTER ARE NOT SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT

INDIAN

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARE</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Group	3	1.3614	0.4537
Within Group	36	29.6136	0.8226

F Value = 0.55 p < .65

DISPLAY OF THE TWO MEANS:

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
Divorce/Widowed	2	2.50	A
Single	22	1.77	A
Married/No Child	12	1.75	A
Married/Children	4	1.50	A

MEANS WITH THE SAME LETTER ARE NOT SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT

Table 6-15 shows the result obtain from the Duncan F-test. It indicate that statistically there is no significant difference among the means of the four group for the three races. In other words statistically, the mean scores in the number of resignations for those with different marital status are not significantly different for the Chinese, Malays or Indians.

6.1.6. RESEARCH QUESTION 5: WHAT ARE THE DETERMINANT FACTORS INFLUENCING BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS' DECISIONS TO VOLUNTARILY CHANGE THEIR EMPLOYMENT IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA ?

In order to answer this research question, Univariate Analysis such as frequencies, percentages, and means will be

utilised. In additions to this, the Chi Square One-Sample Test will be employed. This test is the most commonly used of all non-parametric tests. It is applicable when data are grouped into categories or boxes. It allows the testing of the difference between observed frequencies and expected or theoretical frequencies.

The following section displays the findings regarding the factors which influence blue-collar workers to voluntary labour turnover.

6.1.6.1. Analysis of Personal Factors as Influencing Factors on Voluntary Labour Turnover.

During the survey, the respondents were asked whether they left their previous employers for personal reasons. A rating scale from 0 (No) to 1 (Yes) was used to obtain the answer. Table 6-16 below shows the results obtained from the survey.

As can be seen from the frequencies of responses displayed in Table 6-16, it is learned that 69.8% (n = 155) of the respondents indicate their agreement toward personal factors as the factor which influenced them to voluntarily change jobs, compared to only 30.2 % (n = 67) who disagree. The mean rating of personal factors as a factor influencing turnover is 0.70

and the standard deviation is 0.46.

In addition to this simple descriptive statistic, Table 6-17 displays the findings of the Chi Square One-Sample test which tested the differences in frequencies of the respondents on personal factors as a factor influencing voluntary labour turnover among blue-collar workers in Peninsular Malaysia. The result of the statistical computation shown in Table 6-17 reveals that there is a difference in workers' agreement with personal factors as the factor which relates to voluntary labour turnover. It produces a significant chi-square value of 34.9 at 0.01 level of significant for d.f's = 1. It is noted from the significant value provided from the test indicating that blue-collars workers responses lean more toward accepted personal factors as a factor which influences their decision to resign their job.

TABLE 6-16.

UNIVARIATE FINDING ON PERSONAL FACTORS INFLUENCE TO TURNOVER :
OVERALL DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN

ITEMS	N	MEAN RATINGS	FREQUENCY OF AGREE	PERCENTAGE OF AGREE	FREQUENCY OF DISAGREE	PERCENTAGE OF DISAGREE
PERSONAL FACTOR	222	0.70+	155	69.8	67	30.2

+ Mean of 0.5 and above are consider as significant factor influencing to labour turnover

TABLE 6-17.

ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON PERSONAL FACTORS:

V21	PERSONAL FACTOR	
VALUE	0	1
COUNT	67	155
EXPECTED	111	111
CHI SQUARE	D.F.	SIGNIFICANT
34.883	1	0.000

6.1.6.2. Analysis of Organisational Factors as an Influencing Factor to Voluntary Labour Turnover.

During the survey, the respondents were asked about nine variables which are classified as organisational factors. These variables are as follows:

- a) Pay
- b) Promotion
- c) Supervisory Practices
- d) Peer Group
- e) Work Unit size
- f) Job Content
- g) Job Security
- h) Working Conditions
- j) Working Hours

For this study, the respondents were then asked their views based on their previous job experience, to what extent they agreed or disagreed with the above organisational factors as having influenced their decision to leave their previous job voluntarily. A rating scale from 5 (Strongly Agree) to 1 (Strongly Disagree) was used. Table 6-18 below shows the results of the survey.

From the frequency of responses displayed in Table 6-18, we observe that 68.5% ($n = 152$) of the respondents indicate that they agree that pay is the factor which influences their decision to leave voluntarily, compared to only 31.5 % ($n = 70$) who disagree. The mean rating of pay as a factor influencing to turnover is 3.66 and the standard deviation is 1.74.

Table 6-19 shows the finding of Chi Square One-Sample test on organisational factors. The result of the statistical computation shown in this table shows that although almost all responses toward organisational variables significantly differ in frequencies. However, only one variable was found to have significantly influenced blue-collar decision to turnover. The other factors tended more towards significant disagreement as the factor influence to turnover.

The result reveals that there is a significant difference in workers' agreement toward pay at 0.01 level of significance. This means that it is significant for the acceptance of pay as a factor influencing turnover among the blue-collar workers in Peninsular Malaysia with chi-square value of 30.3 and d.f's = 1.

TABLE 6-18.

UNIVARIATE FINDING ON ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS INFLUENCE TO TURNOVER:
OVERALL DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN

ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS	N	MEAN RATINGS	FREQUENCY OF AGREE	PERCENTAGE OF AGREE	FREQUENCY OF DISAGREE	PERCENTAGE OF DISAGREE
Pay	222	3.66*	152	68.5	70	31.5
Promotion	222	2.65	95	42.8	127	57.2
Supervisory Practices	222	2.59	87	39.2	135	60.8
Peer Group	222	1.82	41	18.5	181	81.5
Work Unit Size	222	1.44	15	6.8	207	93.2
Job Content	222	2.39	76	34.2	146	65.8
Job Security	222	2.71	97	43.7	125	56.3
Working Condition	222	2.53	83	37.4	139	62.6
Working Hours	222	2.31	68	30.6	154	69.4

* Mean of 3.0 and above are consider as significant factor influencing to labour turnover

TABLE 6-19.

ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS

VARIABLE	V31	V32	V33	V34	V35	V36	V37	V38	V39									
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1								
COUNT	70	152	127	95	135	87	181	41	207	15	146	76	125	97	139	83	154	68
EXPECTED	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111
CHI-SQUARE	30.288	4.613	10.378	88.288	166.054	22.072	3.532	14.126	33.315									
D.F.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1									
SIGNIFICANT	0.000	0.032	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.060	0.000	0.000								

NOTES : VALUE 0 = DISAGREE

1 = AGREE

VARIABLE 31 = Pay
 32 = Promotion
 33 = Supervisory
 34 = Peer Group
 35 = Work Unit Size
 36 = Job Content
 37 = Job Security
 38 = Working Condition
 39 = Working Hours

6.1.6.3. Analysis of External Factors as an Influencing Factor to Voluntary Labour Turnover.

Three variables (the availability of alternative employment, the level of job vacancy and the level of unemployment) were classified under the external factor. To discover whether these variables have any influence on voluntary labour turnover, the respondents were next asked to give their view (based on their previous job experience), as to what extent they agree or disagree with these three external variables as having influenced their decision to voluntarily leave their previous job. Table 6-20 below shows the results of the survey.

The frequency of responses displayed in the Table 6-20, shows that 68.5% (n = 152) of the respondents indicate that they agree with the availability of alternative employment as an influencing factor to their decision to voluntary change employment, compared to only 31.5 % (n = 70) who disagree. The mean rating of "the availability of alternative employment" is 3.67 and the standard deviations is 1.74.

Table 6-21. shows the finding of Chi Square One-Sample test on External factors. The result of statistical computation shown in this table demonstrates that there is a significant

difference in the workers' agreement to "the availability of alternative employment" at 0.01 level of significance (chi-square value of 30.3, d.f's = 1). This means that "the availability of alternative employment" is a factor which influences their decision to voluntary labour turnover.

TABLE 6-20.

UNIVARIATE FINDING ON EXTERNAL FACTORS INFLUENCE THE TURNOVER :
OVERALL DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN

EXTERNAL FACTOR	N	Mean Ratings	f of Agreement	% of Agreement	f of Disagreement	% of Disagreement
Job alternative	222	3.67*	152	68.5	70	31.5
Job vacancy	222	2.96	107	48.2	115	51.8
Level of unemployment	222	1.80	30	13.5	192	86.5

* Mean of 3.0 and above are consider as significant factor influencing to labour turnover

TABLE 6-21.

ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON EXTERNAL FACTORS:

VARIABLE	V75	V76	V77
VALUE	0 1	0 1	0 1
COUNT	70 152	155 107	192 30
EXPECTED	111 111	111 111	111 111
CHI-SQUARE	30.288	0.288	118.216
D.F.	1	1	1
SIGNIFICANT	0.000	0.591	0.000

NOTES : VALUE 0 = DISAGREEMENT
 1 = AGREEMENT

VARIABLE 75 = Availability of Alternative Employment
 76 = Job Vacancy
 77 = Level of Unemployment

6.1.7. RESEARCH QUESTION 6: WHAT ARE THE DETERMINANT FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DECISION OF BLUE COLLAR WORKERS' OF DIFFERENT RACES TO VOLUNTARILY CHANGE THEIR EMPLOYMENT IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA ?

Research question 6 seeks to find the factors which influence the decision among the three races of blue-collar workers in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia to change jobs. To find a solution to this research question similar statistical analyses employed in research question 5 will be used. The most appropriate technique to answer this research question is univariate analysis such as mean, percentage, frequencies, and standard deviation. In addition to this technique, the one-sample chi-square will be employed to enable the researcher to compare and test the differences of responses toward each variable in terms of agreement and/or disagreement. The finding of the statistical analysis will be presented as follows:

6.1.7.1. Analysis of Personal Factors as an Influencing Factor to Voluntary Labour Turnover.

From the survey analysis, it is revealed that there are slight similarities between the answers of the respondents among the three races toward personal factors as influencing their decision to voluntarily leave their previous job. Table 6-22 below shows the results of the survey.

As can be observed from the frequency of responses displayed in Table 6-22, we find that among the Malay respondents, 69.7% (n = 99) indicated that personal factors as influencing their decision to voluntary labour turnover, compared to only 30.3% (n = 43) who disagree. The Malays' mean rating of personal factors as an influencing factor to turnover is 0.70 and the standard deviations is 0.46. The percentage of the Chinese respondents who agree to these variables is the highest (75%, n = 30) among the three races, with mean rating of 0.75 and the standard deviation being 0.44. Among the Indian respondents, 65% (n = 26) agree compared to only 35% (n = 14) who disagree with the mean rating of 0.65 and the standard deviation being 0.48.

Apart from the simple descriptive analysis above, the finding of Chi Square One-Sample test makes it evident that among the three races, there is a significant difference in personal factors. The result of the statistical computation is shown in Table 6-23 below.

As regard the Malays, it is obvious that there is a significant difference in personal factors (V21). This test suggests that personal factors as a factor influencing labour turnover at a significant level of 0.01, chi-square value being 22.085. As for the Chinese and the Indians, they also accept

personal factors as an influencing factor on labour turnover at a significant level of 0.05, with chi-square value of 10.000 and 3.600 respectively.

TABLE 6-22

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF PERSONAL FACTORS INFLUENCE THE TURNOVER :
DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN, BY RACE

Scale : 1 = Agreement 0 = Disagreement

Item	MALAY			CHINESE			INDIAN		
	-	%	%	-	%	%	-	%	%
	x	(A)	(D)	x	(A)	(D)	x	(A)	(D)
PERSONAL PROBLEM	0.70	69.7	30.3	0.75	75.0	25.0	0.65	65.0	35.0

Note : % (A) = Percentage of Agreement
 % (D) = Percentage of Disagreement

TABLE 6-23.

ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE
TEST ON PERSONAL FACTORS: BY RACE

Scale 0 = Disagreement 1 = Agreement

PERSONAL PROBLEM	MALAY		CHINESE		INDIAN	
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	43	99	10	30	14	26
EXPECTED	71	71	20	20	20	20
CHI-SQUARE	22.085		10.000		3.600	
D.F.	1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.000		0.002		0.058	

6.1.7.2. Analysis of Organisational Factors as an Influencing Factor to Voluntary Labour Turnover.

Throughout the survey, apart from personal factors, the respondents were also asked whether organisational factors have

any influence on their decision to voluntarily leave their previous job. Table 6-24 below shows the results of this survey.

The frequency of responses shown in Table 6-24, reveal that there is a slightly similiar pattern of views among the three races to the effect that organisational factors have an influence on their decision to voluntary labour turnover.

From the table, it can be seen that the pay factor is more acceptable among the three races as a factor which inflences their decision to voluntarily leave their previous job.

As for the frequency of responses displayed in the Table 6-24 below, one can observe that 70.4 % of the Malay respondents (n = 100) indicated that the pay factor as having influenced their decision to voluntary turnover compared to only 29.6 % (n = 42) who disagree. The mean rating is 3.73 and the standard devation is 1.66.

The percentage of Chinese respondents who agree to this variable is slighly lower than the other two races. It shows that 52.5 % (n = 21) of the Chinese agreed compared to 47.5 % (n = 19) who disagree. The mean rating is 3.05 and the standard deviation is 1.95. From this analysis, we could say that the

percentage of the Indian respondents who agree is the highest among the three races, that is, 77.5 % agreed ($n = 31$) compared to 22.5 % who disagreed ($n = 9$), the mean rating of 4.03 and the standard deviation 1.67.

The finding of Chi Square One-Sample test in Table 6-25 below, shows that a significant difference in terms of agreement and disagreement to the pay factor, exists only among the Malays and the Indians. The result of this statistical computation is shown in Table 6-25 below which clearly indicates that it is a significant difference in agreement at the 0.01 level of significance. The chi-square value as computed for the Malays is 23.690 at d.fs' = 1. Whereas for the Indian chi-square value it is 12.100 at d.fs' = 1.

TABLE 6-24.

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS INFLUENCE THE TURNOVER :
DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN, BY RACE

Scale : 5 = Strongly Agree 4 = Agree 3 = Undecided 2 = Strongly Disagree 1 = Disagree									
ORGANISATIONAL FACTOR	MALAY			CHINESE			INDIAN		
	Mean	%	%	Mean	%	%	Mean	%	%
	x	(A)	(D)	x	(A)	(D)	x	(A)	(D)
Pay	3.73	70.4	29.6	3.05	52.5	47.5	4.02	77.5	22.5
Promotion	2.86	47.2	52.8	2.27	35.0	65.0	2.30	35.0	65.0
Supervisory	2.82	45.8	54.2	1.83	15.0	85.0	2.55	40.0	60.0
Peer Group	1.88	19.0	81.0	1.43	07.5	92.5	2.03	27.5	72.5
Work Unit Size	1.47	7.0	93.0	1.33	02.5	97.5	1.45	10.0	90.0
Job Content	2.47	34.5	65.5	2.00	25.0	75.0	2.50	42.5	57.5
Job Security	2.80	45.8	54.2	2.68	42.5	57.5	2.43	37.5	62.5
Working Condition	2.78	43.7	56.3	1.80	20.0	80.0	2.38	32.5	67.5
Working Hours	2.43	33.1	66.9	1.70	15.0	85.0	2.53	37.5	62.5

TABLE 6-25.

ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON ORGANISATION: BY RACE

VARIABLE	V31	V32	V33	V34	V35	V36	V37	V38	V39
MALAY									
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
COUNT	42	100	75	67	77	65	115	27	132
EXPECTED	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71
CHI-SQUARE	23.690	0.451	1.014	54.535	104.817	13.634	1.014	2.282	16.225
D.F.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
SIGNIFICANT	0.000	0.502	0.314	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.314	0.131	0.000
CHINESE									
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
COUNT	19	21	26	14	34	6	37	3	39
EXPECTED	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
CHI-SQUARE	0.100	3.600	19.600	28.900	36.100	10.000	0.900	14.400	19.600
D.F.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
SIGNIFICANT	0.752	0.058	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.343	0.000	0.000
INDIAN									
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
COUNT	9	31	26	14	24	16	29	11	36
EXPECTED	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
CHI-SQUARE	12.100	3.600	1.600	8.100	25.600	0.900	3.500	4.900	2.500
D.F.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
SIGNIFICANT	0.001	0.058	0.206	0.004	0.000	0.343	0.114	0.027	0.114

NOTES : VALUE 0 = DISAGREE

1 = AGREE

VARIABLE 31 = Pay

32 = Promotion

33 = Supervisory

34 = Peer Group

35 = Work Unit Size

36 = Job Content

37 = Job Security

38 = Working Condition

39 = Working Hours

6.1.7.3. Analysis of External Factors as an Influencing Factor to Voluntary Labour Turnover.

Apart from personal factors and organisational factors, the respondents were also asked whether external factors influence their decision to voluntarily leave their previous

job. Three variables were classified under this dimension, that is the availability of alternative employment, the level of job vacancy and unemployment. Table 6-26 below shows the results for each variable obtained from the survey.

The data obtained from the frequency of responses shown in Table 6-26 reveals that there is virtually a similiar response among the three races toward the variable "availability of alternative employment" which influences their decision to change employment. The percentage of agreement is found to be higher among the Chinese and Indians than the Malays. About 3/4 (72.5%) of the Chinese and the Indians agree that the availability of alternative employment influences their decision to voluntarily change jobs. Similarly, 66.2% of the Malay respondents interviewed state that they agree to this factor. From this finding, it can be concluded that the avilability of alternative employment is highly acceptable among the Chinese and the Indians as a factor which inflences their decision to voluntarily leave their previous job compared to the Malays.

The finding of Chi Square One-Sample test in Table 6-27 below shows that a significant difference in agreement to the availability of alternative employment exists among the three races. The result of this test indicates that it is a

significant difference in agreement at the 0.01 level of significance. The value of chi-square as computed for the Malays is 14.901 at d.fs' = 1. Whereas for the Chinese and the Indians it is 8.100 at d.fs' = 1.

TABLE 6-26.

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS ON EXTERNAL FACTORS INFLUENCE THE TURNOVER :
DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN, BY RACE

Scale : 1 = Agreement 0 = Disagreement									
EXTERNAL FACTOR	MALAY			CHINESE			INDIAN		
	—	%	%	—	%	%	—	%	%
	x	(A)	(D)	x	(A)	(D)	x	(A)	(D)
Job alternative	3.57	66.2	33.8	3.85	72.5	27.5	3.85	72.5	27.5
Job vacancy	2.75	43.7	56.3	3.50	57.5	42.5	3.23	55.0	45.0
Level of unemployment	1.84	13.4	86.6	1.70	10.0	90.0	1.78	17.5	82.5

Note : X = Mean Ratings

* Mean Rating of 3 and above is consider as an influencing factor to turnover.

TABLE 6-27.

ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON EXTERNAL FACTORS: BY RACE

VARIABLE	V75	V76	V77
MALAY			
VALUE	0 1 0 1 0 1		
COUNT	48 94 80 62 123 19		
EXPECTED	71 71 71 71 71 71		
CHI-SQUARE	14.901 2.282 76.169		
D.F.	1 1 1		
SIGNIFICANT	0.000 0.131 0.000		
CHINESE			
VALUE	0 1 0 1 0 1		
COUNT	11 29 17 23 36 4		
EXPECTED	20 20 20 20 20 20		
CHI-SQUARE	8.100 0.900 25.600		
D.F.	1 1 1		
SIGNIFICANT	0.004 0.343 0.000		

TABLE 6-27. (Cont.)

: VARIABLE :	V75 :	V76 :	V77 :
: INDIAN :	:	:	:
:VALUE :	0 1 :	0 1 :	0 1 :
:COUNT :	11 29 :	18 22 :	33 7 :
:EXPECTED :	20 20 :	20 20 :	20 20 :
:CHI-SQUARE :	8.100 :	0.400 :	16.900 :
:D.F. :	1 :	1 :	1 :
:SIGNIFICANT:	0.004 :	0.527 :	0.000 :

NOTES : VALUE 0 = DISAGREEMENT

1 = AGREEMENT

VARIABLE 75 = Availability of Alternative Employment

76 = Job Vacancy

77 = Level of Unemployment

Besides "the availability of alternative employment", slightly more than half of the Chinese (57.5%) and the Indians (55%) agree with "the level of job vacancy" as the external factor which influences their decision to voluntarily leave their previous job. This situation is reversed for the Malay respondents where those who agree constitute 43.7% compared to 56.3% who disagree with level of job vacancy factor. In general, this concludes that the level of job vacancy is more acceptable among the Chinese and the Indians as a factor which influences their decision to voluntary labour turnover compared to the Malays. Table 6-27 above shows the results for each variable obtained from the survey.

The results of the Chi Square One-Sample test in Table 6-27 above, however, shows that there exists no significant difference in agreement toward the level of job vacancy among the three races. The result of this test indicates that they

are not different in agreement even at the 0.05 level of significance. This means that there is no difference in the frequency of responses between those who agree and those who disagree toward the level of job vacancy being the factor which influences their decision to voluntary labour turnover among the three races.

6.1.8. RESEARCH QUESTION 7: ARE THERE ANY DIFFERENCES AMONGST BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA OF DIFFERENT RACES IN THE SUBJECTIVE IDENTIFICATION OF DETERMINANT FACTORS AFFECTING THE DECISION TO CHANGE JOBS?

As discussed and presented in research question 6, several variables are found to be a significant influence on the decision to voluntarily change jobs among the three races. These variables are:

- a) Personal Problems (Personal Factor)
- b) Pay (Organisational Factor)
- c) Availability of Job Alternatives (External Factor)
- d) Level of Job Vacancies (External factor).

This research question is therefore seeking to find out if there are any differences in agreement toward these factors in influencing the decision to voluntary labour turnover among the different races of blue-collar workers.

In order to enable the researcher to discover these differences, the most suitable statistical analysis technique is the One-way Analysis of Variance. This technique is used to

test the differences between the means of the groups' scores in terms of agreement on the four variables above. The means of these race groups will be tested by calculating the statistic F which compares the variability of individual scores between the groups. Finally the Duncan F Grouping will give a better picture of grouping to show whether the means are significantly different. The result of the findings are displayed below.

6.1.8.1. Bivariate Analysis of Differences on Personal Problem

Table 6-28 displays the results obtained using One-way ANOVA. From the table it is shown that the means of agreement toward personal problem as the factor which influences decision to voluntary labour turnover are not significantly different among the three races. The findings obtained from the test indicates that statistically there is no difference amongst the means of the three race groups, where $p < .62$. The obtained value of $F = 0.47$ is larger in both the 0.05 and 0.01 level of significance for d.f.s' = 2 and 219.

The computation of this test demonstrates that there is no significant difference between the means of the groups indicating their acceptance toward personal problem in influencing their decision to resign their employment.

TABLE 6-28

ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PERSONAL
PROBLEM MEAN INDICATED ACCEPTANCE OF
THE THREE GROUPS.

Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Strongly Agree

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Groups	2	0.2004	0.1002
Within Groups	219	46.5789	0.2127

F Ratio = 0.47 p < .62

DISPLAY OF THE THREE MEANS:

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
CHINESE	40	0.750	A
MALAY	142	0.697	A
INDIAN	40	0.650	A

6.1.8.2. Bivariate Analysis of Differences of Organisational Factor: Pay, By Race

The Table 6-29 shows the results obtained from General Linear Models Procedure (ANOVA). The computation of this test suggests that there are significant differences between pay means indicating acceptance by the three group. The result obtained indicates that statistically these groups means are significantly different in terms of acceptance of pay at $p < .05$. The obtained value $F = 3.56$ is smaller at both the 0.05 and 0.01 levels of significance with d.f.s' = 2 and 152. This,

therefore, concludes that there is a difference between the group means toward pay.

In addition, from Table 6-29, the result of the Duncan Test applied two possible answers:

* The mean of acceptance toward pay among the Malay and the Indians is not significantly different at $p < .05$.

* The mean of acceptance toward pay among the Chinese is significantly different at $p < .05$.

TABLE 6-29.

ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PAY
MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE OF THE
THREE GROUPS.

Scale : 1 = Strongly Disagree
5 = Strongly Agree

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Groups	2	20.9562	10.4781
Within Groups	152	644.7060	2.9439
F Ratio = 3.56 p = .0301			

DISPLAY OF THE THREE MEANS :

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
INDIAN	40	4.050	A
MALAY	142	3.732	A
CHINESE	40	3.050	B

6.1.8.3. Bivariate Analysis of Differences of the External Factors: Availability of Alternative Employment, By Race

Table 6-30 displays the results obtained using the one-way

ANOVA. From this table it is shown that the means of agreement toward the availability of alternative employment as the factor which influences decision to voluntary labour turnover are not significantly different among the three races. Although the means of the Chinese (3.85) and the Indians (3.85) are slightly higher than those of the Malays (3.57), the finding obtained from the test indicates that statistically there is no difference amongst the means of the three races groups, where $p < .51$. The obtained value of $F = 0.66$ is larger in both in the 0.05 and 0.01 level of significance for d.f.s' = 2 and 219.

The computation of this test shows that there is no significant difference between the means of the groups indicating their acceptance toward the availability of alternative employment in influencing their decision to voluntarily change their jobs. Additionally, from Table 6-30, the result of the Duncan Test applied one possible answer:

* The mean of acceptance toward the availability of alternative employment is not significantly different among the three races at both in 0.05 and 0.01 level of significance.

TABLE 6-30.

ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AVAILABILITY
OF ALTERNATIVE EMPLOYMENT MEANS INDICATED
ACCEPTANCE OF THE THREE GROUPS.

Scale : 1 = Strongly Disagree
5 = Strongly Agree

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Groups	2	3.9997	1.9999
Within Groups	219	666.9957	3.0456

F Ratio = 0.66 p = .051 (N.S.)

DISPLAY OF THE THREE MEANS :

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
CHINESE	40	3.8500	A
INDIAN	40	3.8500	A
MALAY	142	3.5704	A

6.1.8.4. Bivariate Analysis of Differences of the External Factors: The Level of Job Vacancy, By Race

The computation of the one-way analysis of variance test suggests that there are significant differences between the three groups for the mean scores for the level of job vacancy indicating acceptance. The result from Table 6-31 below reveals that statistically there is a significance at $p < .05$. F value = 3.56 which is smaller at both the 0.05 and 0.01 levels of significance with d.f.s' = 2 and 219. Hence there is a difference between the group means toward the acceptance of the level of job vacancy in influencing their decision to voluntary

labour turnover.

The result of the Duncan Test as displayed in Table 6-31 below applied two possible answers:

- * The means of acceptance toward the level of job vacancy among the Chinese and the Indians are not significantly different at $p < .05$.
- * The means of acceptance toward the level of job vacancy among the Indians and the Malays are not significantly different at $p < .05$.
- * The mean of acceptance toward the level of job vacancy of the Chinese is significantly different from the the Malays' at $p < .05$.

TABLE 6-31.

ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN JOB
VACANCY MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE
OF THE THREE GROUPS.

Scale : 1 = Strongly Disagree
5 = Strongly Agree

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Groups	2	20.9310	10.4655
Within Groups	219	643.8482	2.9399

F Ratio = 3.56 $p = .0301$

DISPLAY OF THE THREE MEANS :

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
CHINESE	40	3.5000	A
INDIAN	40	3.2250	A B
MALAY	142	2.7465	B

6.1.9. RESEARCH QUESTION 8: WHAT ARE THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH THE DETERMINANT FACTORS AND THEIR STRENGTH IN INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?

From the analysis in research question 5, three variables were found to be significant in influencing the decision to voluntary labour turnover among the blue-collar workers in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia. These factors are as below:

- a) Personal Problems (Personal Factors)
- b) Pay (Organisational Factors)
- c) Availability of Alternative Employment (External Factors)

This research question is, therefore, geared to seek out what are the underlying reasons associated with these factors in influencing voluntary labour turnover among the blue-collar workers in manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia.

To enable this question to be answered, the most adequate statistical tools which are going to be used are Simple Descriptive Statistics such as frequencies distribution, percentages and means. The results of this statistical computation is displayed in the following section.

6.1.9.1. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with Personal Factors in Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover

From the analysis of the research finding as shown in

Table 6-32 below, one observes that none of the underlying reasons tested in this study were significantly associated with personal problems in influencing voluntary labour turnover among the blue-collar in Peninsular Malaysia.

The figure from Table 6-32, however, revealed that it is a mixture of several underlying variables which influence voluntary labour turnover. Among the strongest underlying reasons which is associated with the personal factors for which the respondents agree to have influenced their decision to voluntary labour turnover is "Career Development" which accounts for 48.4 %. The mean rating is 2.93. This is followed by "family problems" with 43.2 % who agree. The mean rating is 2.74. Whilst the least percentage is related to "start own business" factor which accounts for only 1.3 % who agree compared to 98.7 % who disagree. The mean rating is 1.25.

TABLE 6-32.

UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH PERSONAL PROBLEMS IN INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: OVERALL DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN.

Scale: 5 = Strongly Agree 4 = Agree 3 = Undecided 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree						
PERSONAL PROBLEM	n	MEAN RATING	FREQUENCY OF AGREE	PERCENTAGE OF AGREE	FREQUENCY OF DISAGREE	PERCENTAGE OF DISAGREE
Family problem	155	2.74	67	43.2	88	56.8
Health problem	155	2.08	41	26.5	114	73.5
Start own business	155	1.25	2	1.3	153	98.7
Join other service	155	1.47	13	8.4	142	91.6
Go for further study	155	1.42	11	7.1	144	92.9
Transportation problem	155	1.99	38	24.5	117	75.5
Housing problem	155	1.90	33	21.3	122	78.7
Career Development	155	2.93	75	48.4	80	51.6
Locality	155	2.12	37	23.9	118	76.1

6.1.9.2. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with Pay and Their Influence on Voluntary Labour Turnover.

To discover how pay affects the decision to change jobs, five reasons were put to the respondents. These reasons are stated in Table 6-33. Analysis shows that most of the respondents accept that all the reasons a significant influence on blue-collar workers' decision to change employment.

The highest percentage of agreement toward the reasons associated with pay is that they are not satisfied with the level of pay. This reason accounts for 90.8 % of agreement with mean rating being 4.55, whilst the least percentage of agreement is that "Inadequate compared to my qualification".

TABLE 6-33.

UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH PAY IN
INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: OVERALL DISTRIBUTION IN
PERCENTAGE AND MEANS.

Scale: 5 = Strongly Agree 4 = Agree 3 = Undecided 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree

PAY	n	MEAN RATING	FREQUENCY OF AGREE	PERCENTAGE OF AGREE	FREQUENCY OF DISAGREE	PERCENTAGE OF DISAGREE
Lower than that of present job.	152	4.45	134	88.2	18	11.8
Less than I deserved.	152	4.05	117	77.0	35	23.0
Inadequate compared to my qualifications.	152	3.36	84	55.3	68	44.7
Inadequate for normal expenses.	152	4.10	119	78.3	33	21.7
Not satisfied.	152	4.55	138	90.8	14	9.2

6.1.9.3. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with Availability of Alternative Employment and Their Influences on Voluntary Labour Turnover.

Since only one reason is tested to discover the underlying reasons associated with availability of alternative employment, it is, therefore, revealed that, almost 100 % of the respondents agree that they left their previous job because there was another job waiting for them.

6.1.10. RESEARCH QUESTION 9: WHAT ARE THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH THE DETERMINANT FACTORS AND THEIR STRENGTH IN INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS OF DIFFERENT RACES IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?

The results of research question 6 discovered 4 factors which influence the decision to voluntary labour turnover among the three races. These 4 factors are listed as below:

- a) Personal Problem
- b) Pay
- c) Availability of Alternative Employment
- d) Level of Job Vacancy (Significant to the Chinese and the Indians only).

This research question therefore, aims to analyse what are the underlying reasons associated with these factors and their strength in influencing voluntary labour turnover among the blue-collar workers of the three different races in manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia. The finding of the statistical analysis is describe in the following sub-section.

6.1.10.1. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with Personal Problems in Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover, By Race.

During the survey, the respondents were asked whether they leave their previous employer because of personal problems. If their answer is "YES" they then have to describe to what extent the following reasons relating to personal problems influence their decision to voluntarily leave their previous job. These reasons are listed as below:

- a) Family problems
- b) Health problems
- c) Starting own business
- d) Joining other services
- e) Go for further studies
- f) Transportation problems
- g) Housing problems
- h) Career development
- i) locality

Table 6-34 displays the result of the univariate analysis of the underlying reasons associated with personal problems in influencing voluntary labour turnover among the three races. From the Table, it is clear that "Career Development" is the strongest influencing reason among the Chinese respondents. Also 73.3% of the Chinese respondents indicate that they agree with "Career Development" compared to 26.7% who disagree, the mean rating being 4.03 and the standard deviation 1.67.

Among the Indian respondents, "Family Problems" appear to be the most important underlying reason for the personal

problem to resign a jobs 61.5 % of the Indians indicate that they agree with this factor compared to 38.5 % who disagree, the mean rating being 3.42 and the standard deviation 1.90.

TABLE 6-34.

UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH PERSONAL PROBLEMS IN INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEAN, BY RACE.

Scale: 5 = Strongly Agree 4 = Agree 3 = Undecided 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree

PERSONAL PROBLEM	MALAY			CHINESE			INDIAN		
	-	%	%	-	%	%	-	%	%
	X	(A)	(D)	X	(A)	(D)	X	(A)	(D)
Family problem	2.94	47.5	52.5	1.50	13.3	86.7	3.42	61.5	38.5
Health problem	2.27	31.3	68.7	1.43	10.0	90.0	2.12	26.9	73.1
Start own business	1.29	1.0	99.0	1.17	00.0	100.0	1.19	3.8	96.2
Join other service	1.69	13.1	86.9	1.13	00.0	100.0	1.04	00.0	100.0
Go for further study	1.57	10.1	89.9	1.16	00.0	100.0	1.19	03.8	96.2
Transportation problem	2.19	29.3	70.7	1.70	16.7	83.3	1.57	15.4	84.6
Housing problem	2.06	26.3	73.7	1.50	06.7	93.3	1.76	19.2	80.8
Career Development	2.81	45.5	54.5	4.03	73.3	26.7	2.15	30.8	69.2
Locality	2.25	27.3	72.7	2.03	20.0	80.0	1.73	15.4	84.6

Note : VALUE

0 = DISAGREEMENT

1 = AGREEMENT

The underlying reasons for the personal problem which influences voluntary labour turnover among the Malay respondents seems to be a mixture of factors in comparison to the Chinese and the Indians. None of the underlying reasons on personal problems listed was found to be significant as an influence on the Malays to resign. However, among the most strongest underlying reasons for the personal problem among the

Malays is Family Problems with mean rating being 2.94 (47.5 % Agree) and "Career Development" appears to be the second highest factor with mean rating being 2.81 (45.5 % agree).

6.1.10.2. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with Pay in Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover, By Race.

In order to discover the underlying reasons associated with pay, the respondents were asked to what extent they agree or disagree with each of the following statements about their feelings towards pay as having influenced their decision to voluntary labour turnover. These reasons are as stated in Table 6-35 below.

Table 6-35 reveals the finding of the univariate analysis on the underlying reasons associated with pay in influencing voluntary labour turnover among the three races. The Table shows that almost all the reasons put to them have significant influence on the decision to change employment among the three races.

The most strongest underlying reason influencing the pay factor is "no satisfaction with pay". Of the Malay respondents 89% agree to "Not being satisfied with pay" as compared to 11.0 % who disagree. Mean rating of no satisfaction with pay as a

factor influencing the Malays is 4.49 and the standard deviation is 0.93. Equally, the majority of the Chinese (95.2 %) and the Indian (93.5 %) respondents agree with this underlying reason on the pay factor as influencing their decision to voluntary labour turnover.

TABLE 6-35.

UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH PAY IN
INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE
AND MEANS, BY RACE.

Scale: 5 = Strongly Agree 4 = Agree 3 = Undecided 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree

PAY	MALAY			CHINESE			INDIAN		
	- X	% (A)	% (D)	- X	% (A)	% (D)	- X	% (A)	% (D)
Lower than that of present job	4.41	87.0	13.0	4.67	95.2	4.8	4.45	87.1	12.9
Less than I deserved	3.93	73.0	27.0	3.86	76.2	23.8	4.45	90.3	9.7
Inadequate compared to my qualifications	3.38	54.0	46.0	3.48	66.7	33.3	3.23	51.6	48.4
Inadequate for normal expenses	3.99	74.0	26.0	4.24	85.7	14.3	4.35	87.1	12.9
Not satisfied	4.49	89.0	11.0	4.52	95.2	4.8	4.77	93.5	6.5

Note : VALUE 0 = DISAGREEMENT
 1 = AGREEMENT

The statement which gains the lowest support but is yet significant is "Inadequate compared to my qualification" one. 54 % of the Malays, 66.7 % Chinese and 51.6 % of the Indians agree with this factor as influencing their decision to voluntary labour turnover.

6.1.10.3. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with Availability of Alternative Employment in Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover, By Race.

Among the three races, all of those who state that the availability of alternative employment is an influencing factor to their voluntary labour turnover, identified from the list of underlying reasons as to why they left their previous job that there was another job waiting for them. Table 6-36 shows the univariate findings on this underlying reason among the three races.

TABLE 6-36.

UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH AVAILABILITY OF ALTERNATIVE EMPLOYMENT IN INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND MEANS, BY RACE.

Scale: 5 = Strongly Agree 4 = Agree 3 = Undecided 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree

AVAILABILITY OF ALTERNATIVE EMPLOYMENT	MALAY			CHINESE			INDIAN		
	- X	% (A)	% (D)	- X	% (A)	% (D)	- X	% (A)	% (D)
I left my previous job because there was another job	4.77	100.0	00.0	4.93	100.0	00.0	4.93	100.0	00.0

Note : VALUE 0 = DISAGREEMENT
 1 = AGREEMENT

6.1.10.4. Analysis of Underlying Reasons Associated with the Level of Job Vacancy in Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover, By Race.

From Table 6-37, it is revealed that all (100 %) of those

who agreed that the level of job vacancy influences their decision to voluntary labour turnover admitted that they left their previous job because there were a lot of jobs in the labour market at that time. This underlying reason, however, is significant to the Chinese and the Indians respondents only.

TABLE 6-37.

UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH LEVEL OF
JOB VACANCY IN INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION
IN PERCENTAGE AND MEANS, BY RACE.

Scale: 5 = Strongly Agree 4 = Agree 3 = Undecided 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree

LEVEL OF JOB VACANCY	-	MALAY		-	CHINESE		-	INDIAN	
		% (A)	% (D)		% (A)	% (D)		% (A)	% (D)
I left my previous job because there was a lot of job in the labour market at that time	X	N.S	N.S	X	4.87	100.0	X	4.86	100.0

Note : N.S. = NOT SIGNIFICANT
VALUE 0 = DISAGREEMENT
1 = AGREEMENT

**6.1.11. RESEARCH QUESTION 10: ARE THERE ANY DIFFERENCES IN THE
UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH THE DETERMINANT
FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DECISION TO VOLUNTARY LABOUR
TURNOVER AMONG DIFFERENT RACES OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS
IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA?**

To answer this research question, One-way Analysis of variance will be employed. The following section displays the result of the statistical analysis.

6.1.11.1. Analysis of Differences on Personal Problems: Family Problems

The aims of this section is to analyse whether or not there are any differences between the means of agreement on the family problems as the underlying reasons for personal problem. The result of the statistical analysis is as below:

TABLE 6-38.

ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE MEANS OF
AGREEMENT ON THE FAMILY PROBLEMS AS A FACTOR
INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER AMONG
THE THREE RACES

Scale : 1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Strongly Agree

Source	D.F.	Sum of Square	Mean Square
Between Groups	2	62.1949	31.0975
Within Groups	152	473.4825	3.1150

F Ratio = 9.98 p = .0001

DISPLAY OF THE FOUR MEANS AND GROUPING :

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
Indian	26	3.4231	A
Malay	99	2.9394	A
Chinese	30	1.5000	B

MEANS WITH THE SAME LETTER ARE NOT SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT.

The results obtained from General Linear Models Procedure (ANOVA) in Table 6-38 above suggests that there is a significant difference between the three races group means in

their perception toward accepting family problems as a personal factor influencing voluntary labour turnover. Statistically, it is a significant difference among the group means, where $p < .01$ and the obtained value of $F = 9.98$. From the same table, the Duncan test calculations indicate that the mean of the Indians and Malays are not significantly different toward family problems. On the contrary, the mean of the Indians and Malays are significantly different to the Chinese mean.

6.1.11.2. Analysis of Differences on Personal Problem: Career Development, By Race

This section aims at finding out whether there are any differences between the means of agreement on the career development as the underlying reason for personal problems in influencing voluntary labour turnover among different races in Peninsular Malaysia. The result of the statistical analysis is as below:

TABLE 6-39.

ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE CAREER
DEVELOPMENT MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG
THE THREE GROUPS.

Scale : 1 = Strongly Disagree
5 = Strongly Agree

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Groups	2	53.6500	26.8250
Within Groups	152	475.7048	3.1296

F Ratio = 8.57 p = .0003

DISPLAY OF THE THREE MEANS :

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
CHINESE	30	4.0333	A
MALAY	99	2.8081	B B
INDIAN	26	2.1538	B

Table 6-39 shows the result of computation from the one-way analysis of variance which suggests that there are significant differences between the groups means of agreement toward career development at $p < .01$, and the f value = 8.57. Additionally, from the same table, the result of the Duncan Test applied the possible answers as below:

- * The means of acceptance toward career development of the Malays and the Indians are not significantly different at $p < .01$.
- * The mean of acceptance toward career development of the Chinese is significantly different from the means of the Indians and the Malays at $p < .01$

6.1.11.3. Analysis of Differences on Pay: By Race

- a) "Lower Than That of Present Job (LTPJ).
- b) "Less Than I Deserved" (LTID).
- c) "Inadequate Compared to My Qualification"(ICMQ).
- d) "Inadequate For Normal Expenses" (IFNE)
- e) "Not satisfied With Pay" (NSWP)

The objective of this section is to find out whether there

DISPLAY OF THE THREE MEANS :

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
CHINESE	30	4.0333	A
MALAY	99	2.8081	B B
INDIAN	26	2.1538	B

Table 6-39 shows the result of computation from the one-way analysis of variance which suggests that there are significant differences between the groups means of agreement toward career development at $p < .01$, and the f value = 8.57. Additionally, from the same table, the result of the Duncan Test applied the possible answers as below:

- * The means of acceptance toward career development of the Malays and the Indians are not significantly different at $p < .01$.
- * The mean of acceptance toward career development of the Chinese is significantly different from the means of the Indians and the Malays at $p < .01$

-
- 6.1.11.3. Analysis of Differences on Pay: By Race
- a) "Lower Than That of Present Job (LTPJ).
 - b) "Less Than I Deserved" (LTID).
 - c) "Inadequate Compared to My Qualification" (ICMQ).
 - d) "Inadequate For Normal Expenses" (IFNE)
 - e) "Not satisfied With Pay" (NSWP)

The objective of this section is to find out whether there

(b) Less Than I Deserved (LTID)

TABLE 6-41.

ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN "LTID"
 MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG
 THE THREE GROUPS.

Scale : 1 = Strongly Disagree 5 = Strongly Agree

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Between Groups	2	9.9187	4.9593
Within Groups	149	304.7588	2.0453
F Ratio = 2.42	p = .0920		

DISPLAY OF THE THREE MEANS :

GROUP	N	MEAN	DUNCAN GROUPING
CHINESE	21	3.8571	A
MALAY	100	3.9300	A
INDIAN	31	4.5484	A

Table 6-41 shows the result of computation from the one-way analysis of variance which suggests that there are no significant differences between the groups means of agreement toward "LTID" at $p < .09$, and the f value = 2.42.

(c) Inadequate Compared For Normal Expenses (ICNE)

TABLE 6-42.

ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE "ICNE"
 MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG
 THE THREE GROUPS.

Scale : 1 = Strongly Disagree 5 = Strongly Agree

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Between Groups	2	0.4406	0.4406
Within Groups	149	424.2174	2.8470
F Ratio = 0.15	p = .8568		

DISPLAY OF THE THREE MEANS :

GROUP	N	MEAN	DUNCAN GROUPING
CHINESE	21	3.4762	A
MALAY	100	3.3800	A
INDIAN	31	3.2258	A

Table 6-42 shows the result of computation from the one-way analysis of variance which suggests that there are no significant differences between the groups means of agreement toward "ICMQ" at $p < .85$, and the f value = 0.15.

(d) Inadequate For Normal Expenses (IFNE)

TABLE 6-43.

ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE "IFNE"
MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG
THE THREE GROUPS.

Scale : 1 = Strongly Disagree 5 = Strongly Agree

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Between Groups	2	3.6234	1.8117
Within Groups	149	277.8962	1.8650

F Ratio = 0.97 $p = .3809$

DISPLAY OF THE THREE MEANS :

GROUP	N	MEAN	DUNCAN GROUPING
CHINESE	21	4.2381	A
MALAY	100	3.9900	A
INDIAN	31	4.3548	A

MEANS WITH THE SAME LETTER ARE NOT SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT

Table 6-43 shows the result of computation from the one-way analysis of variance which suggests that there are no significant differences between the groups means of agreement toward "IFNE" at $p < .38$, and the f value = 0.97.

(E) Not Satisfied With Pay (NSWP)

TABLE 6-44.

ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE "NSWP"
MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG
THE THREE GROUPS.

Scale : 1 = Strongly Disagree 5 = Strongly Agree

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Groups	2	1.9314	0.9657
Within Groups	149	121.6474	0.8164
F Ratio = 1.18	p = .3092		

DISPLAY OF THE THREE MEANS :

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
CHINESE	21	4.5238	A
MALAY	100	4.4900	A
INDIAN	31	4.7742	A

MEANS WITH THE SAME LETTER ARE NOT SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT

Table 6-44 shows the result of computation from the one-way analysis of variance which suggests that there are no significant differences between the groups means of agreement toward "NSWP" at $p < .30$, and the f value = 1.18.

6.1.11.4. Analysis of Differences on the Availability of
Alternative Employment: By Race
"There is Another Job Waiting (TAJW)"

This section aims at finding out whether there are any differences between the means of agreement on the "TAJW" as the

underlying reason for availability of alternative employment in influencing voluntary labour turnover among different races in Peninsular Malaysia. The result of the statistical analysis is as below:

TABLE 6-45.

ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE "TAJW"
MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG
THE THREE GROUPS.

Scale : 1 = Strongly Disagree
 5 = Strongly Agree

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Groups	2	3.9997	1.9998
Within Groups	152	666.9957	3.0456
F Ratio = 0.66	p = .5196		

DISPLAY OF THE THREE MEANS :

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
CHINESE	40	3.8500	A
MALAY	142	3.5704	A
INDIAN	40	3.8500	A

Table 6-45 shows the result of computation from the one-way analysis of variance which suggests that there are no significant differences between the groups means of agreement toward "TAJW" at $p < .51$ and the f value = 0.66.

6.1.11.5. Analysis of Differences on the Level of Job Vacancy, By Race: "There was a lot of Job Vacancies in the Labour Market (JWLM)"

The aims of this section is to find out whether there are any differences between the means of agreement on the "JWLM" as

the underlying reason for the level of job vacancy in influencing voluntary labour turnover among different races in Peninsular Malaysia. The result of the statistical analysis is as below:

TABLE 6-46.

ANOVA FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE "JWLM"
MEANS INDICATED ACCEPTANCE AMONG
THE THREE GROUPS.

Scale : 1 = Strongly Disagree 5 = Strongly Agree

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>SUM OF SQUARES</u>	<u>MEAN SQUARE</u>
Between Groups	2	20.9310	10.4655
Within Groups	219	643.8482	2.9399
F Ratio = 3.56	p = .0301		

DISPLAY OF THE THREE MEANS :

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>DUNCAN GROUPING</u>
CHINESE	40	3.5000	A
INDIAN	40	3.2250	A B
MALAY	142	2.7465	B B

Table 6-46 shows the result of computation from the one-way analysis of variance which suggests that there are significant differences between the groups means of agreement toward "JWLM" at $p < .03$, and the f value = 3.56. Additionally, from the same table, the result of the Duncan Test applied the possible answers as below:

- * The means of acceptance toward the "JWLM" of the Malays and the Indians are not significantly different at $p < .05$.

- * The means of acceptance toward the "JWLM" of the Chinese and the Indians are not significantly different at $p < .05$.

- * The mean of acceptance toward "JWLM" of the Chinese is significantly different from the means of the Malays at $p < .05$

PART II

The Findings of the Personnel Managers' Questionnaire

The objective of this Part II of Chapter Six is to present the findings of the statistical analysis of data collected from the Personnel Managers' Questionnaire. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, the aims of the Personnel Managers' Questionnaire is to compare the Personnel Managers' opinions with the Blue-Collar Workers answers. To a large extent, it can also be used to assess the reliability and the frankness of the blue-collar workers' answers. It is hoped that this can provide a better picture to explain the phenomenon of voluntary labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia.

6.2. Presentation of the Personnel Managers' Responses

In the survey, forty-one Personnel Managers were interviewed for their views on the factors influencing voluntary labour turnover among the three races in Peninsular Malaysia. In order to analyse the data on the Personnel Managers' response, univariate analysis such as frequency distribution, percentage, means and One-Sample Chi-Square tests are used. The results will be presented according to the analysis of the profile of the respondents, demographic,

personal, organisational and analysis of external factors. The findings of the Personnel Managers responses are presented as follows:

6.3.1. Analysis of the Profile of the Respondents

The purpose of this section is to present a descriptive analysis of the sample data. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, the selection of the sample is not random due to the fact that it is largely based on the response and cooperation from the Personnel Managers themselves (Please refer to section entitled "Limitations and Problems in the Research Methodology", pp.213-215).

Table 6-47:

Distribution of Respondent, By Location

<u>Location</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>
Kuala Lumpur	12	29.3
Johor Bahru	18	43.9
Penang	11	26.8
Total	41	100.0

Table 6-47 shows that a total of 41 respondents participated in this study. Out of 41 selected 12 (29.3%) are from Kuala Lumpur. From the Same Table, it is learned that the majority of the respondents, 18 (43.9%) are from Johor Bahru. This is expected based on the good cooperation received in Johor Bahru (Already discussed in the Methodology Chapter). For the respondent in Penang, it accounts for 26.8% (n=11).

Table 6-48:

Distribution of Respondent, By Race

Race	n	%
Malay	33	80.5
Chinese	7	17.1
Indian	1	2.4
Total	41	100.0

The data in Table 6-48 suggests that a high proportion of the respondents 33 are Malays who account for 80.5%. The same Table notes that 7 (17.1%) of the total 41 respondents interviewed are Chinese, and 1 (2.4%) is Indian. This distribution is not extraordinary based on the believed that most of the Personnel Managers in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia are Malays. It appears that the manufacturing sector have Malays as Personnel Managers because of convenience in dealing with the Government agencies for employment matters. Given the lowest percentage of the Indians in the managerial occupations (refer to Table 2-3), it is expected that the Indians represent the lowest rate of the respondents in this study.

6.3.2. Analysis on Demographic factors

During the survey, five demographic variables were posed to the Personnel Managers to obtain their views on the characteristics of voluntary labour turnover of the three races.

The variables are: sex, age, education, marital status, and length of service. The results of this analysis are displayed in Table 6-49.

Table 6-49:

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE

Demographic Factors \ Race	Malay			Chinese			Indian		
	x	% (A)	% (D)	x	% (A)	% (D)	x	% (A)	% (D)
Female Workers	3.39	65.9	34.1	2.98	43.9	56.1	3.17	53.7	46.3
Young Workers	3.85	85.4	29.3	3.53	70.7	29.3	3.70	80.5	19.5
Better Education	2.61	24.4	75.6	3.05	43.9	56.1	2.59	24.4	75.6
Married	2.56	24.4	75.6	2.39	14.6	17.1	2.41	17.1	82.9
Shorter Length of Service	3.12	51.2	48.8	3.22	53.7	46.3	3.15	51.2	48.8

Note: Mean of 3.0 and above are consider as significant factor influencing to labour turnover

- x = mean score
- n = number of sample
- % (A) = Percentage of Agreement
- % (D) = Percentage of Disagreement

6.3.2.1. Analysis by Sex and Race

As can be observed from the percentage of agreement distribution in Table 6-49, 65.9% of the Personnel Managers agreed that voluntary labour turnover of the Malays blue-collar workers are among the females. Similarly, the percentage for the Indian accounted for 53.7% and for the Chinese it accounts for 43.9%. The mean rating of agreement for the Malays is 3.39, the Chinese is 2.98 and for the Indian is 3.17.

Table 6-50 shows the result of the Chi-Square One-Sample Test. From this test it reveals that there is a difference in

the Personnel Managers' agreement regarding the sex of Malays workers who quit their job voluntarily. The result produces a significant chi-square value of 4.122 at 0.04 level of significant for d.f's = 1. From the significant value provided from the test, it illustrates that the Personnel Managers response lean more towards the accepted statement that the majority of the Malay workers who quit their job voluntarily are among the females. On the contrary, the findings does not apply to the Chinese and Indians.

6.3.2.2. Analysis by Age and Race.

A study of Table 6-49 shows that a majority (85.4%) of the Personnel Manager agreed that voluntary labour turnover of the Malays are mostly among the younger workers. With regard to the Chinese and Indians, the response of agreement are 70.7% and 80.5% respectively. The mean rating for the Malays is 3.85, the Chinese 3.53 and for the Indians is 3.70.

The result from the Chi-Square One-Sample Test in Table 6-50 demonstrate that the Personnel Managers significantly accepted that those who left voluntarily their previous employment consist mainly of young workers for all the three races. It is accepted at the 0.01 level of significant.

6.3.2.3. Analysis by Education and Race

With regard to education as an influencing factor to voluntary labour turnover, the data from Table 6-49 indicates that 24.4% of the respondents agreed that the Malay leavers are among those with better education, 43.9% for the Chinese and 2.6% for the Indians. This means that more than half of the respondents disagreed with the statement that most of the turnover of the three races are among those with better education.

In addition to the percentage distribution, Table 6-50 highlights that the response from the Personnel Managers show that better education is not acceptable to describe the characteristic of the voluntary labour turnover of all the three races. Even though the result from the Chi-square test notes that it is significant for the three races, the response however, lean more toward not accepting this factor as a characteristic of the turnover.

6.3.2.4. Analysis on Marital Status and Race

Table 6-49 exhibits that only 24.4% of the Personnel Managers agreed that most of the Malays who quit their job voluntarily are among the married workers. A study from the

same Table shows a similar trend on agreement for the Chinese (14.6%) and the Indians (17.1%). In other words more than half of the respondents agreed that most turnover are among non-married workers.

Table 6-50 discloses the results of the statistical One-sample Test. Even though the result shows a significant value, it is however, significant toward disagreement to the statement that most of the voluntary labour turnover are among the married workers. A uniform results were found among the three races.

6.3.2.5. Analysis on Length of Service and Race

In Table 6-49, notes that the majority (51.2%, mean rating 3.12) of the Personnel Manager agreed that most Malays who leave their job voluntarily are among those with shorter length of service. The same tendency is found among the Chinese (53.7%, mean rating 3.22) and the Indians (51.2%, mean rating 3.15).

Although the percentage distribution and mean rating in Table 6-49 show that shorter length of service are significantly accepted by the respondents as one of the characteristics to labour turnover, it is however, not too

strong to be significantly accepted when testing through the One-sample chi-Square test. As can be observed in Table 6-50, this factor is not significantly accepted by the respondents for all the three races.

Table 6-50:

ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR, BY RACE

VARIABLE	FEMALE		YOUNG		BETTER EDUCATION		MARRIED		SHORTER LENGTH OF SERVICE	
<u>MALAY</u>										
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	14	27	6	35	31	10	31	10	20	21
EXPECTED	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
CHI-SQUARE	4.122		20.512		10.756		10.756		10.756	
D.F.	1		1		1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.042		0.000		0.001		0.001		0.876	
<u>CHINESE</u>										
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	23	18	12	29	23	18	35	6	19	22
EXPECTED	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
CHI-SQUARE	0.610		7.049		0.610		20.512		0.220	
D.F.	1		1		1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.435		0.008		0.435		0.000		0.639	
<u>INDIAN</u>										
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	19	22	8	33	31	10	34	7	20	21
EXPECTED	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
CHI-SQUARE	0.220		15.244		10.756		17.780		0.024	
D.F.	1		1		1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.639		0.000		0.001		0.000		0.876	

6.3.3. Analysis on Personal factors

For the purpose of analysing the Personal factor, nine observable variables are tested (refer to Table 6-51). The findings on these factors are as follows:

Table 6-51:

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING PERSONAL FACTORS DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE

Personal Factors \ Race	Malay		Chinese		Indian	
	% (A)	% (D)	% (A)	% (D)	% (A)	% (D)
Family Problems	95.1	4.9	46.3	53.7	82.9	17.1
Health Problems	51.2	48.8	24.4	75.6	58.5	41.5
Start Own Business	0.0	100.0	63.4	36.6	0.0	100.0
Join Other Services	7.3	92.7	7.3	92.7	7.3	92.7
Further Study	12.2	87.8	2.4	97.6	0.0	100.0
Transportation	2.4	97.6	2.4	97.6	4.9	95.1
Housing	12.2	87.8	4.9	95.1	22.0	78.0
Career Development	63.4	36.6	97.6	2.4	90.2	9.8
Locality	63.4	36.6	97.6	2.4	90.2	9.8

% (A) = Percentage of Agreement

% (D) = Percentage of Disagreement

Table 6-51 shows the percentage distribution on personal factor. It is learned that the following variables are found to be the significant influence on Malay turnover: Family Problems (95.1%), Health Problems (51.2%), Career Development (63.4%) and Locality (63.4%). For the Chinese it is identified that the following factors influence turnover: To Start Own Business (63.4%), Career Development (90.2%), Locality (97.6%) and for the Indians: Family Problem (82.9%), Health Problems (58.5%), Career Development (65.9%) and Locality (90.2%).

Beside the simple descriptive analysis above, the Chi-square One-sample Test is used to support this findings. The results of the One-sample Test are displayed in Table 6-52. From this Table, two variables are found to be significantly

accepted for the Malays (Family Problem and Career Development). For the Chinese (Career Development) and for the Indians (Family Problem and Career Development).

Table 6-52:

ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON PERSONAL FACTOR, BY RACE

VARIABLE	V6		V7		V8		V9		V10		V11		V12		V13		V14	
<u>MALAY</u>																		
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	2	39	20	21	41	0	38	3	36	5	40	1	36	5	13	28	15	26
EXPECTED	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	41	0	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
CHI-SQUARE	33.390		0.024		0.0		29.878		23.439		37.098		23.439		5.488		2.951	
D.F.	1		1		1		1		1		1		1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.000		0.876		1.000		0.000		0.000		0.000		0.000		0.019		0.086	
<u>CHINESE</u>																		
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	22	19	31	10	15	26	30	3	40	1	40	1	39	2	4	37	40	1
EXPECTED	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
CHI-SQUARE	0.220		10.756		2.951		29.878		37.098		37.098		33.390		26.561		37.098	
D.F.	1		1		1		1		1		1		1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.639		0.001		0.086		0.000		0.000		0.000		0.000		0.000		0.000	
<u>INDIAN</u>																		
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	7	34	17	24	41	0	38	3	41	0	39	2	39	2	14	27	40	1
EXPECTED	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	41	0	20.5	20.5	41	0	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
CHI-SQUARE	17.780		1.195		0.0		29.878		0.0		33.390		12.905		4.122		26.561	
D.F.	1		1		0		1		0		1		1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.000		0.274		1.000		0.000		1.000		0.000		0.000		0.042		0.000	

Note: V6 = Family Problems
 V7 = Health Problems
 V8 = Start Own Business
 V9 = Join Other Services
 V10 = Further Study
 V11 = Transportation
 V12 = Housing
 V13 = Career Development
 V14 = Locality

6.3.4. Analysis of Organisational Factors

For the purpose of analysing the organisational factors,

the respondents were interviewed to obtain their views to what extent they agree or disagree with nine observable variables which are classified under the organisational factor as having influencing the blue-collar workers' decision among the three races to voluntarily change employment. The findings of the nine variables are in Table 6-53 and 6-54 and are as follows:

Table 6-53:

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE

Organisational Factors \ Race	Malay		Chinese		Indian	
	% (A)	% (D)	% (A)	(D)	% (A)	% (D)
Pay	75.6	24.4	73.2	26.8	75.6	24.4
Promotion	48.8	51.2	53.7	46.3	48.8	51.2
Supervisory Practices	12.2	87.8	12.2	87.8	26.8	73.2
Peer Group	4.9	95.1	4.9	95.1	14.6	85.4
Work Unit Size	2.4	97.6	2.4	97.6	2.4	97.6
Job Content	51.2	48.8	53.7	46.3	53.7	46.3
Job Security	17.1	82.9	9.8	90.2	14.6	85.4
Working Conditions	22.0	78.0	14.6	85.4	14.5	80.5
Working Hours	31.7	68.3	17.1	82.9	19.5	80.5

% (A) = Percentage of Agreement

% (D) = Percentage of Disagreement

A study of Table 6-53 clarifies that about three-quarter of the respondents (75.%) agreed that Pay is the most important factor which influence the Malay workers to turnover. Besides pay, Job Content (51.2%) and Promotion (48.8%) are the secondary factors to turnover. Similar trend is found among the Chinese and the Indians.

Based on the simple statistical analysis, even though more

than one organisational factor is found to be significantly influence the three races to turnover, the results from the Chi-square One-sample Test in Table 6-54, however, illustrate that a significant difference in terms of agreement to the organisational factors exist only with regard to the pay factor for the three races. Other factors are insufficiently strong to be significantly accepted in the One-sample chi-square Test.

Table 6-54:

ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON ORGANISATIONAL FACTOR, BY RACE																		
VARIABLE	V31		V32		V33		V34		V35		V36		V37		V38		V39	
<u>MALAY</u>																		
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	10	31	21	20	36	5	39	2	40	1	20	21	34	7	32	9	28	13
EXPECTED	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
CHI-SQUARE	10.756		0.024		23.439		33.390		37.098		0.024		17.780		12.902		5.488	
D.F.	1		1		1		1		1		1		1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.000		0.876		0.000		0.000		0.000		0.876		0.000		0.000		0.019	
<u>CHINESE</u>																		
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	11	30	19	22	36	5	39	2	40	1	19	22	37	4	35	6	34	7
EXPECTED	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
CHI-SQUARE	8.805		0.220		23.439		33.390		37.098		0.220		26.561		20.512		17.780	
D.F.	1		1		1		1		1		1		1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.003		0.639		0.000		0.000		0.000		0.639		0.000		0.000		0.000	
<u>INDIAN</u>																		
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	10	31	21	20	30	11	35	6	40	1	19	22	35	6	33	8	33	8
EXPECTED	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
CHI-SQUARE	10.756		0.024		8.805		20.512		37.098		0.220		20.512		15.244		15.244	
D.F.	1		1		0		1		0		1		1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.001		0.876		0.003		0.000		0.000		0.639		0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: V31 = Pay
V32 = Promotion
V33 = Supervisory Practices
V34 = Peer Group
V35 = Work Unit Size
V36 = Job Content
V37 = Job Security
V38 = Working Conditions
V39 = Working Hours

6.3.5. Analysis on External Factors

As in the organisation factor analysis, the respondents were interviewed for their views as to what extent they agree or disagree with three observable external variables as having influencing the blue-collar workers' decision among the three races to voluntary labour turnover. The findings of the nine variables are in Table 6-55 and 6-56 and are as follows:

Table 6-55:

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS SHOWING EXTERNAL FACTORS DISTRIBUTION, BY RACE

External Factors \ Race	Malay		Chinese		Indian	
	% (A)	% (D)	% (A)	% (D)	% (A)	% (D)
Alt. Employment	87.8	12.2	85.4	14.6	87.8	12.2
Job Vacancy	87.8	12.2	90.2	9.8	87.8	12.2
Level of Employment	17.1	82.9	17.1	82.9	17.1	82.9

% (A) = Percentage of Agreement

% (D) = Percentage of Disagreement

Table 6-55 clearly reveals that the availability of alternative employment and the level of job vacancy are the two most significant factors influencing voluntary labour turnover among the three different races. More than 80% of the Personnel Managers agreed that these two factors are influencing factors to turnover among the three races.

Table 6-56 proves that these two variables are significantly accepted by the Personnel Managers as factors which influence the blue-collar workers of the three races to

voluntarily change their jobs.

Table 6-56:

ANALYSIS OF THE ONE SAMPLE CHI-SQUARE TEST ON EXTERNAL FACTOR, BY RACE

VARIABLE	ALT. EMPLOYMET		JOB VACANCY		LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT	
<u>MALAY</u>						
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	5	36	5	36	34	7
EXPECTED	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
CHI-SQUARE	23.439		23.439		17.780	
D.F.	1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.000		0.000		0.000	
<u>CHINESE</u>						
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	6	35	4	37	34	7
EXPECTED	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
CHI-SQUARE	20.512		26.561		17.780	
D.F.	1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.000		0.000		0.000	
<u>INDIAN</u>						
VALUE	0	1	0	1	0	1
COUNT	5	36	5	36	34	7
EXPECTED	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
CHI-SQUARE	23.439		23.439		17.780	
D.F.	1		1		1	
SIGNIFICANT	0.000		0.000		0.000	

CHAPTER SEVEN:

DISCUSSION ON THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

7.0. Introduction

The object of this chapter is to clarify, discuss and explain the findings of this research as presented in chapter six. It is divided into two parts. Part I aims to present the discussion solely based on the Blue-collar Questionnaire. The objective of the discussion is to evaluate the present findings in terms of similarities or differences with previous studies of voluntary labour turnover, either in Peninsular Malaysia or in other parts of the world. In particular, it is intended to identify and explain the different patterns of labour turnover amongst the different races. Recognising that this is not a random sample and there are problems of generalisability it is hoped, however, to provide an in-depth understanding of this issue. Part II will discuss the findings of the Personnel Managers Questionnaire. The main purpose of Part II is to make a comparison between the findings as exhibited from the Blue-collar Questionnaire and also from the Personnel Managers Questionnaire.

Part I

Discussion on the Blue-collar Questionnaire Findings

The aim of this part one of chapter seven is to discuss on the blue-collar questionnaire. The focus of the discussion is primarily based on the research objectives and is confined to the factors which were found to be statistically significant. It will be summarised under the specific dimensions as follows:

- a) The general characteristics of voluntary labour turnover and a comparison among the different races.
- b) The factors influencing voluntary labour turnover and comparison among the different races.
- c) The underlying reasons associated with factors influencing voluntary labour turnover and comparison among different races.

7.1. Discussion on the General Characteristics of Voluntary Labour Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia, By Race.

The factors discussed under the general characteristics include elements such as age, length of service, marital status, sex, level of education, and the number of dependents of the respondents. The discussion of each factor will be presented as follows:

7.1.1. Age

The results of the present study show that the majority of

the sample are young workers (aged 15 - 24). An examination of the different races reveals similar characteristics. Generally, this means that older employees of all ethnic groups had less tendency to voluntarily change employment. This finding supports the position of Ang (1981) in a study of labour turnover on Peninsular Malaysia. Her findings demonstrate that the age group with the highest turnover (77.5%) is the 16-25s. Equally, the finding of this study is in line with Daud's (1985) work. Her study on female factory workers illustrates that young female employees (15 - 25 years old) exhibit a higher rate of labour turnover compared to older age groups.

There are similar reasons why the majority of voluntary labour turnover is to be found among young workers. One important answer is in terms of the substantial number of young people in the production and related sectors of the labour market. This is shown in several studies by Manpower Department (1987b); Malaysia: JSEC (1989d); Othman and Abdullah (1983), (Refer to Section 3.2.1. of Chapter Three, page 72-73).

Another explanation is to be found in changing attitudes to job mobility amongst the young. Since 1986 with the excess of demand over supply in the labour market, most young workers in Peninsular Malaysia expect to be mobile. Given the competition for workers among most companies it seems that

after leaving school, young people normally take whichever job is available. They consider their first job as a stepping stone, and a means to get a better one - a necessary and useful experience, especially in a situation where there are many job opportunities. The study of Daud (1985:23-25) indicates a clear picture of this situation when she mentioned:

Our sample showed that more than 50% of the workers (mostly those with five years secondary education) had expressed a desire to get a better job and regard their current job as temporary only...Thus, the workers regarded their jobs as stepping-stones to better ones....They too view the job in the factory as temporary for much the same reasons and look forward to working elsewhere where the conditions and pay are better.

Unlike the young, the older workers had less tendency to voluntarily change their jobs. There are numerous studies offering possible explanations to this phenomenon. Some of them identify job security (Clarke, 1950 and Herzberg et al., 1957), loss of entitlements offered such as pension rights, long service leave and coverage (Hutch, 1963; Bucklow, 1963; Harris, 1964; and Pilch, 1973), obligation in the organisation (Clarke, 1950), the stability of the profession and the ties to family responsibility (Harris, 1964).

Even though these explanations refer to Western countries some of them, could apply to voluntary labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia. The older workers (25 years old and above) in this country appear to be less mobile especially after

getting married (This is more applicable to male workers). Normally, they start to think of a stable job or job security. This was evident throughout discussions with several personnel managers. They preferred older workers to younger ones when recruiting. In their view, the older workers are less mobile, more stable in terms of accommodation and thus less tempted to quit their jobs. This explanation, however, is not conclusive, because previous findings on marital status shows some contradiction (refer to section 3.2.3).

7.1.2. Length of Service

The majority of the respondents had a short length of service with their previous employers, more precisely, about 44.1% were those with 0-6 months. Within the different race groups, our data from the survey indicated that there were almost uniform percentage distributions in their length of service. The result of the present study corroborated Ang's (1981) and Daud's (1985) findings that most labour turnover is among those with a short length of service or working experience. Our results on the length of service also coincide with the earlier part of our findings based on the Age group, which consists of young workers. If this is the case, then it is expected that most of them had a shorter length of service. Rationally, one would expect that there is a link between age

and length of service whereby it is obvious that young workers have shorter length of service and fewer job change.

On the basis of interviews with personnel managers, the researcher learnt that the present trend in most companies in Peninsular Malaysia is to hire workers with at least some experience or those who have familiarity with machines. By hiring experienced workers, delays in production, training costs, and the possibility of industrial accidents can be minimised. Thus, workers with some experience take advantage of their earlier jobs in small and less established companies to get a better offer in a large and well known organisation which normally offers higher wages and better fringe benefits compared to smaller firms.

Another way of explaining the phenomena of the length of service is offered by Harris (1964). His view is that the first year at work is the most tricky period which is related to the adaptation to a new job. He stressed that some workers become unstable once they move to a new place of work which further leads to labour turnover. Another group of issues mentioned by Harris was job security and benefits such as pensions.

Similarly, in Peninsular Malaysia, those workers with longer service could enjoy higher wage rates, and also could

benefit from annual leave, sick leave and payment in the event of hospitalisation. These vary according to length of service. With respect to annual leave, the prescribed minimum by the Malaysian labour law entitles workers to a 7 day leave per calendar year upon completion of 12 months continuous employment. The entitlement increases to 14 days per year after five years. Likewise, most collective agreements covering industrial workers state a 7 day paid leave to those with 12 months to 3 or 5 years' service. It raises to 14 days for 3 (or 5) to 10 years' service and 21 days for over 10 years' service.

To be entitled to sick and hospitalisation benefits, workers have to have worked for no less than 12 months. They will be awarded a 14 day-paid-sickness leave for illness not requiring hospitalisation. If hospital treatment is required they are entitled to 60 days per year (Ford, 1979; Malaysia: Ministry of Labour Malaysia, 1989e).

Wage rates are also based on length of service and experience. For instance several rubber product companies in Penang paid a starting salary to their machine operators of M\$195 per month. The salary ranges from M\$195 to M\$300 for those with 0-5 years of service. It increases to between M\$300 - M\$407 for 5 - 10 years and M\$407 - M\$529 for those over 10 years. Other industries such as Textile also pay according to

the length of service (Malaysia: Research and Planning Division, 1989).

From Table 6-2 of Chapter 6, one can see that the percentage of repondents changing jobs decreases as the length of service increases. Our analysis showed that from the length of service distribution, the highest percentage (44.1%) of respondents is found among those with 0 - 6 months length of service record with their last employer. This finding agrees with Harris (1964) who speculated that the first few months are the most unstable period. Our results, however, further showed that the percentage rose among the respondents with more than 2 years length of service. This is partly because they had better working experience and could find a new job in the prevailing employment situation. It was reported that most rubber product industries in Johor Bahru (Senai) had employed only those with two years of experience (Malaysia: Research and Planning Division, 1989).

7.1.3. Marital Status

If one turns to Table 6-3, one could observe that the majority of voluntary labour turnover was found among single workers (65.3 %) and those who are married with no children (26%). The picture is reversed for those who are married with

children (8.1%), and the divorced or widowed group (0.9%). This is also true across different ethnic groups; among the Malays 65.49% are single and 26.76% are married with no children, the Chinese have 75% single and 17.5% married with no children, while the Indians have 55% single and 30% married with no children.

This finding is not surprising because it coincides with the earlier part of this survey based on Age and length of service groups. The results showed that single workers or those who are married with no children are in line with our earlier argument that most of the "turnovers" were young. Thus, it is understood that most young employees are single or have just married. Moreover, this phenomenon is also consistent with the explanation on the degree of family responsibilities and mobilities of the worker (Goodman, 1973; Harris, 1964).

Another reason that might explains why most of the "turnovers" in the present study are among single workers might be due to the fact that the present labour market consists largely of this type of worker. This view is based on the recent survey by a local consultant who reveals that 65% of the total of production workers in their survey were single workers (Malaysia: JSEC, 1989d).

7.1.4. Sex

With regard to sex, the results of the present study showed that slightly more than half of the respondents were female. Similarly, most of the voluntary labour turnover among the three races was also female.

Evidence from previous studies in Peninsular Malaysia also suggests that the labour turnover rate was found to be higher among female workers than males (Ang, 1981). This result is also not new to the study of voluntary labour turnover conducted in Western Countries. Among the Western studies which agree with the present finding are those carried out by Arnold (1957), Bucklow (1963), Harris (1964), and Knapp et al., (1982).

This result can be seen in the context of the majority of the production workers in Peninsular Malaysia being female (See Table 3-7 of Chapter 3). Moreover, our review shows that most high labour intensive industries would prefer to employ female workers (refer to section 3.2.3 of Chapter 3). Since more than half (see Table 3-7) of the production workers are female, it is inevitable that most of the labour turnover is among this group of workers.

Other factors, however, which might also influence the

female to exhibit a higher level of turnover than male workers is due to the fact that female workers tend to be unstable in their working careers because of more dissatisfaction with heavy, unsuitable working conditions, night shifts, difficulty with children, lack of opportunity to raise qualifications and lack of kindergartens (Harris, 1964). In Peninsular Malaysia, it often happens that females after marriage contribute to voluntary labour turnover. This can be attributed to the widespread belief in Malaysia that resignation is preferable after marriage because of the difficulties with children and more responsibility towards the husband and family. This opinion would not surprise readers who have read Yun and Talib (1986: 20), in which a respondents say:

After I get married I'll quit because I do not like to work in the electronics factories. I am already fed up of working on shifts.

Another says:

It depends on my husband, Says a married worker, if he wants me to stop I will.

Similar descriptions were found in the study by Daud (1985:27):

Although the sample showed that 90% of the workers were unmarried, 60% of them felt that they would stop working after marriage while 40% felt that this decision would depend upon their future husbands. Of the 10% married workers interviewed, four per cent worked because they needed the extra income to support their children while six per cent were in the process of resigning in order to fulfill the 'request' of their husbands.

In Peninsular Malaysia, some husbands seem not to like their wives working (Daud, 1985). Traditionally, some husbands expect their wife's full attention in the early stage of marriage, and only later do they encourage the wife back to work in order to supplement the family income. Most female married workers regard their work as secondary to housework. They work in order to get extra income to support the family. In contrast, most married male workers are less mobile because of family responsibilities.

7.1.5. Level of Education

Other characteristics observed in our findings are that most of the respondents are generally among those with upper level qualifications (Malaysian Certificate of Education). This means that those with higher qualifications display higher tendencies to voluntary labour turnover. Similarly, the findings within different races reveal an equal pattern of distribution in terms of the level of education. Most of the voluntary labour turnover among the three races is among those with better education.

This finding is not extraordinary for the argument that those with better qualifications and experience could easily find another job or have better opportunity and demand. This

argument was supported by Daud's (1985) studies of Malaysia factory girls. Her report was that 50 % of the workers (mostly those with five years of secondary education) had expressed a desire to get better jobs and regarded their current jobs as only temporary. These workers regarded their present jobs as stepping-stones to better ones. Similarly, Martin (1979) noted the main factor that would tend to make the labour turnover higher for those with more high levels of education is that more highly educated individuals have career expectations that the organisation cannot fulfil.

7.1.6. Number of Dependents

With respect to the respondents' number of dependents, our findings showed that the majority of the respondents have few dependents (more precisely, about 63.4 % have less than 3 dependents). Within the different race groups, our data from the survey also reveals a similar percentage distribution in their number of dependents. The trends of our results on the number of dependents is consistent with the earlier part of our findings based on age group, marital status and sex. The argument that young workers are more mobile, and have less family responsibilities supports the findings on the number of dependents.

In conclusion, our findings suggest that a substantial majority of "voluntary labour turnover" amongst the blue-collar

workers in the survey is from young people with a short length of service with their previous employer, who are single, female, with an upper qualification (Malaysian Certificate of Education) and less than 5 dependents¹. The results also indicate that the three major race groups in Peninsular Malaysia share the same characteristics in relation to voluntary labour turnover.

7.2. Discussion of Factors Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia, By Race.

Apart from trying to establish the general characteristic of voluntary labour turnover among the blue-collar workers in Peninsular Malaysia, it is also the objective of the present study to ascertain the factors which are statistically significant in influencing the decision to voluntarily leave employment and to determine if there are any different factors affecting this decision amongst the different races. As discussed in Chapter Four, the factors influencing voluntary labour turnover will be classified into three following categories:

- (1) Personal factors
- (2) Organisational factors and
- (3) External factors

Each category consists of several variables which are used

¹. Please refer to page 230-231 on how the concept of dependent is used in this study.

to describe these three broad categories. However, as already stated the discussion of factors influencing voluntary labour turnover will be confined to those variables which were found to be statistically significant.

7.2.1. Personal Factors

The results from the survey clearly show that the job leaving decision of blue-collar workers in Peninsular Malaysia was significantly influenced by personal factors. The three races also showed the same trend. These results are obtained by using a One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and show that there is no significant difference between the means of the three races in indicating their acceptance toward personal factors in influencing their decision to voluntarily change jobs.

This finding is consistent with Ang (1981) who found that "Family Problems" accounted for 37.3% of the respondents' reasons for leaving. In addition to this, she observed that "Personal problems not related to health" accounted for 31.6%. According to Ang, this is the most common reason among married female employees for leaving their jobs. Evidence from Ang's study however, does not determine the differences between races. Her study is more suitable to the general picture for

the whole population in Peninsular Malaysia.

7.2.2. Organisational Factor

Among nine organisational variables tested, pay is the only variable which was found to be a significant influence on blue-collar workers' decision to voluntarily change employment (Refer to Table 6-18 and 6-19). The same result was also observed among the three races. The Chinese respondents, however, showed a slightly lower percentage of agreement with pay compared to the other two races. One-way ANOVA test clearly proved that the means of acceptance toward pay among the Malays and Indians is not significantly different. However, the means of acceptance among the Indians and Malays is significantly different from the Chinese. This suggests that even though pay is significantly accepted by the three races as a factor influencing their decision to change jobs the acceptances, nevertheless, are much stronger among the Malays and Indians (Refer to Table 6-24 and 6-25).

That the pay factor is a strong reason for changing jobs to the Malays and Indians, is not surprising given the higher proportion of poverty to be found among these two races than the Chinese. This group of blue-collar worker represents the the lower strata and the majority of them are from poor

families. Daud's (1984) study noted that most of the blue-collar workers parents' income is below M\$ 300 per month. They work in order to maximise income for the family and in this context it would be natural to change jobs to ones with higher wages.

Comparatively, the Chinese are less poor than the Malays or than the Indians. That is to say, although there are some Chinese who are poor, the poverty group among this race is smaller compared to the other two races (please refer to Table 2-4 or section 2.2.3 of Chapter 2). Whilst Suryadinata's (1985) study demonstrated that there are many poor Chinese, as a group, the Chinese own a significant proportion of the means of production and are better off than any of the other ethnic groups. The results of the present study show that even though the Chinese look for jobs with better wages, they are also concerned with gaining knowledge for future business opportunities (further detail will be discussed below under the section Underlying Reasons for Personal Factor).

If we could apply Maslow's basic motivation theory known as the Hierarchy Needs to this study, we could understand that the Malays and the Indians are still struggling for the basic needs of better pay as a result of the fact that they are mostly in the poverty group. In contrast, the Chinese have

almost fulfilled this need and are going for a higher level of need fulfillment.

On the basis of our discussion in the next part of this chapter - the underlying reasons of the personal factor, it is clear that the Chinese are moving to the next level of the hierarchy of Maslow theory - i.e. security of employment. They are preparing themselves for their own "Career development" by looking for knowledge rather than struggling for immediate higher wages. It is known that most Chinese feel that having their own business is much more secure than working for other people. The Chinese believe that their business career will be carried over by their children when they are dead.

7.2.3. External Factor

Even though the result of the frequency of responses reveals that the percentages of agreement toward the "availability of alternative employment" is found to be higher among the Chinese and Indians than the Malays, the result of chi-square one-sample test showed that this variable significantly influences the three races in terms of voluntary labour turnover. The computation of One-way ANOVA shows that the means of acceptance toward this variable is not significantly different among the three races.

This finding is not unusual because one could expect that if there is another job with a better offer, one would of course accept the new job. This statement has been confirmed by March and Simmon (1958), Price and Mueller (1981) and Miller and Merwe (1982). March and Simon's argument is that alternative employment must be available for turnover to take place. Whereas Mobley's et al (1978) conclusion was that the perception and evaluation of alternative employment is a crucial variable in the individual turnover process. Moreover, Prentice (1976:36) noted that "individuals will only change jobs if there is another job ready to step into".

As discussed in Chapter Three, from the period of late 1986 till today, most industries in Peninsular Malaysia are facing a shortage of labour. This, therefore, indirectly illustrates that there are lots of job alternatives in the markets. Moreover, with a substantial amount of job vacancies reported to Malaysian Manpower Department for the production workers reflect a similar situation. This creates a situation where most companies have to compete for workers. Several companies appear to offer competitive wages and better employment conditions so as to attract workers. This situation might be a possible explanation of our finding on the availability of alternative employment as an influencing factor to voluntary labour turnover.

The above explanation, however, is in contrast with Daud's (1985: 29-30) study in the 1970s. She argued that labour turnover in a Japanese company was high because the company took advantage of the labour surplus in the country:

Perhaps this high turnover of labour does not cause much concern as the Japanese know that there is an abundant supply of cheap female labour in the surrounding districts from which the firms can recruit workers.

She further argues that;

It is good to have a high turnover (of labour) because we don't have to pay more and give fringe benefits'.

With the existence of labour shortage in the country, most employers are not too choosy in getting their workers. As discussed in chapter three, today most of the companies which offer less competitive wages face some difficulty in recruitment and retaining workers in their organisations. Hence, Daud's argument seems only to apply to the period where there was labour surplus in the country.

Besides the "availability of alternative employment", slightly more than half of the Chinese and the Indians agree with "the level of job vacancy" as the external factor which influences their decision to voluntarily leave their job. This situation, however, is reversed for the Malay respondents. "The level of job vacancy", in other words, is more acceptable to the Chinese and the Indians as a factor which influences their

decision to voluntarily change jobs compared to the Malays. The results of the one-way ANOVA test suggests that the means of acceptance toward the level of job vacancy among the Chinese and Indians is not significantly different. Moreover, the means of acceptance toward the level of job vacancy among the Indians and the Malays is also not significantly different. On the other hand, the means of acceptance toward the level of job vacancy of the Chinese is significantly different from the Malays.

A possible explanation that "The level of job vacancy" is more acceptable among the Chinese and the Indians but less acceptable among the Malays can partly be attributed to the fact that the Malays have a lower level of confidence about working in the manufacturing industries or the private sector. Their fluency in English language is a major constraint in getting a job in manufacturing or the private sector. Historically, the Malays' participation in the manufacturing sector has been very low. Since independence, the majority of the Malays relied on the government sector as their source of income. Compared to the Malays, the non-Malays are well-established in the manufacturing sector. The picture, however, show changes only after the introduction of The New Economic Policy with more Malays now working in the manufacturing sector.

Given that the Malays are relatively new to the manufacturing sector, it can be expected that the Malays might not quit a job even though there are alternative jobs in the labour market because of these constraints. The Malays might only change their job if there is "availability of alternative employment" (which means that there already another job waiting for them). Therefore, the "level of job vacancy" (which means that there were a lot of jobs in the labour market at that time) may not be an influential factor to determine the Malays' decision to change jobs. For the Chinese and the Indians, getting a job in the private sector is not a major problem provided that there are a large number of job vacancies. English fluency which is a requirement in the private sector is not a constraint for them. Furthermore, these two races have for a longtime been well established in this sector compared to the Malays.

As a conclusion to the discussion of factors influencing voluntary labour turnover in Malaysia among the three different races, it appears that the personal factor has a significant influence on the decision of the three races to change employment. Among the organisational variables, pay is the only factor which influences all three races. With regard to the external factor, availability of alternative employment is found to influence the three races. The level of job vacancy,

however, is found to influence only the decisions of the Chinese and the Indians.

7.3. Discussion of the Underlying Reasons Associated with Voluntary Labour Turnover in Peninsular Malaysia, By Race.

The final objective of this research is to find the underlying reasons associated with the factors which determine blue-collar workers' decisions to voluntarily quit their jobs in the manufacturing sector in Peninsular Malaysia. This research will, then, try to determine whether there are any differences in these underlying reasons among the three major race groups. This objective is vital to give an insight into the factors which cause voluntary labour turnover. The discussion of the underlying reasons will also be classified into the following three categories:

- (1) The underlying reasons of Personal factors
- (2) The underlying reasons of Organisational factors
- (3) The underlying reasons of External factors

The discussion of each of the three categories, like the discussion on the factor influencing voluntary labour turnover, is also composed of several variables used to describe the three broad categories. Again, the discussion in this section will be limited to the underlying reasons of those factors which were found to be statistically significant.

7.3.1. The Underlying reasons of Personal factor

The present study shows that even though "personal factors" are a significant influence on blue-collar workers' decision to change employment, the perceptions of the three races toward the underlying reasons are different. The results show a mixture of several underlying variables which influence the blue-collar worker and which are different among the three races. For the Chinese, their perception towards "personal factors" refers to "Career Development"² as the possible underlying reason. Whereas "family problems" appear to be the most important reason for the Indians. In contrast, a mixture of underlying reasons was found among the Malays. The most prominent underlying reason of the Malays are "Family problems" and "Career Development" (Refer to Table 6-34).

The One-way ANOVA test shows that there is a significant difference between the means of the three race groups' in terms of their perception toward accepting "family problems" as the underlying reason for "personal factor". In addition, the Duncan test calculations indicate that the means of the Indians

². The variable "Career Development" is used here to mean that the respondent is looking for knowledge, experience and skills so as to prepare for their future career. For instance, with such knowledge they hope to open a similar small business within the knowledge they gained.

and Malays are not significantly different toward family problems. On the contrary, the mean scores of the Indians and Malays are significantly different to the Chinese ones. Therefore, "Family problems" are only the underlying reasons among the Indians and Malays (Refer to Table 6-41 and 6-42).

It is hard to explain the relationship between family problems and turnover among the Indian and Malays. However, among the possible explanations is a widespread belief that these two races are more "family oriented" compared to the Chinese who are more "career oriented". The Malays and Indians' family ties are much closer (Yassin, 1990) compared to the Chinese who are known in the commercial world and have more exposure to business since the colonial period which consequently made them more independent with higher level of self-confidence.

The interviews in this research with female Malay and Indian employees showed that many resign after getting married, becoming pregnant or developing health problems. Most of their husbands demand / require their full attention at the early stages of marriage, but then encourage them back to work to supplement the family income later in life.

Besides "Family Problems", our results from the

statistical analysis also suggest that there is a significant difference between the means of the three race groups in their perception toward accepting "Career Development" as a personal factor influencing voluntary labour turnover. The Duncan test calculations clearly indicate that the means of acceptance of "career development" of the Indians and Malays are not significantly different. On the other hand, the means of acceptance of "career development" by the Chinese is significantly different from the Indians and Malays. "Career Development" is therefore, only acceptable to the Chinese as the underlying reason.

The discussions with the Personnel Managers and Chinese respondents during the face-to-face interviews, came as quite a surprise to the researcher when he learnt that most Chinese respondents change their jobs with the intention of getting more knowledge. They might work in different areas with different firms but under the same type of industry. By doing so, they hope to get different forms of knowledge of one business. It was somewhat surprising to observe that the Chinese are preparing themselves for a future career or think of "Career Development". They work at the early stage to get knowledge and reserve this knowledge with an ambition to open a similar small business with the knowledge they gained. This may not surprise readers who are familiar with Freedman (1961). The

author captures the focal characteristics of the Chinese as they "knew how to handle money and organise men in relation to Money". Therefore, it is believed that the Chinese also "know how to make money".

The underlying reasons for the Malays consist of a mixture of "Family Problems" and "Career Development". This shows that the Malays are changing and gradually moving from the "family" world toward "Career" which is partly due to government policies which place a great emphasis on the participation of Malays in industrial and commercial occupations (Refer to Section 2.3.3 of Chapter Two). In order to achieve more of a balance between the Chinese and the Malays, the dynamic life has to become the central focus for the Malays.

7.3.2. The Underlying reasons of Organisation factor

With regard to the underlying reasons on pay, our results shown in Table 6.0 reveal that the higher percentage of agreement among the blue-collar workers is that they are "not satisfied with pay". About 90.8% of the responses consider this factor as influencing their decision to change employment. Besides this factor, other reasons also show high percentage of agreement. A substantial majority (78.3%) indicate that they "received inadequate pay for normal expenses". Moreover, about

77.0% mention that they "received pay less than what they deserve". On the other hand, 55.3% agree that the pay received is "inadequate compared to their qualifications".

From Table 7-0, one could observe that the most important reason affecting the pay factor within the three races is "no satisfaction with pay". For the Chinese, "lower than that of present job" presented similar percentage of agreement to the "no satisfaction with pay". Of the Malay respondents, "lower than that of present job" ranks as the second most important reason in contrast to the Indians whose second most important reason is that pay is "less than I deserved". The least important reason for all races but yet statistically significant is the "inadequate compared to my qualification" one.

It was not surprising to note that a substantial majority of all races considered that "not being satisfied with pay" as an important reason in influencing their decision to change employment. Wages in Peninsular Malaysia are among the lowest in any other Asian country (See Table 3-14). The government's policy in encouraging foreign investment for its country's economic development, has forced them to take risks through encouraging low wage level. This however, has resulted in a poor deal for Malaysian labour through low income. Consequently, "not being satisfied with pay" has become an

influential reason for workers to leave their jobs if there is a better offer elsewhere, especially for the Malays and Chinese. It is clear that this was followed by the "inadequate for normal expenses" which further supports the earlier statement by Dunkley (1982) that most of the Malaysian labour force is being exploited.

Table 7-0

UNIVARIATE FINDING ON THE UNDERLYING REASONS ASSOCIATED WITH PAY IN INFLUENCING VOLUNTARY LABOUR TURNOVER: DISTRIBUTION IN PERCENTAGE AND RANKING, BY RACE.

PAY	MALAY			CHINESE			INDIAN		
	%(A)	%(D)	RANK	%(A)	%(D)	RANK	%(A)	%(D)	RANK
Lower than that of present job	87.0	13.0	2	95.2	4.8	1	87.1	12.9	3
Less than I deserved	73.0	27.0	4	76.2	23.8	4	90.3	9.7	2
Inadequate compared to my qualification	54.0	46.0	5	66.7	33.3	5	51.6	48.4	5
Inadequate for normal expenses	74.0	26.0	3	85.7	14.3	3	87.1	12.9	3
Not satisfied	89.0	11.0	1	95.2	4.8	1	93.5	6.5	1
Note: %(A) - Percentage of Agreement %(D) - Percentage of Disagreement									

For the Indians, the second most important reason is that pay is "less than I deserved". A possible explanation of this phenomenon is that there might be "discriminatory practices" toward this race in the work place. This explanation, however,

is not conclusive because the researcher has no such strong evidence to support the statement. A more detailed investigation is needed before any conclusion can be made. However, as discussed in chapter three, it appears that discrimination exists between the three different races in the work place, which might support the above argument.

7.3.3. The Underlying reasons of External factor

Inevitably since only one reason was examined to discover the underlying reasons associated with "availability of alternative employment" and "job vacancy", all the respondents who stated this factor as an explanation of voluntary labour turnover confirmed the underlying reason posed to them.

For those who state that "availability of alternative employment" is an influencing factor to their decision to change jobs, admit that they have another job waiting for them as their underlying reason to leave their previous job. On the other hand, those who state "job vacancy", admit that they left their previous job because there were a lot of jobs in the labour market at that time. This finding reinforces the discussion on the external factor which has already been discussed in section 7.2.3. above.

As a conclusion, although the personal factor appears to influence the decision of the three races to change employment, the underlying reason of this factor is however different among the three races. For the Indians, the underlying reason is "family circumstances". For the Chinese, it is the "career development". For the Malays, it is a mixture of "family circumstances" and "career development". With regard to the underlying reasons of pay, "dissatisfaction with pay" is the most common between the three races. As for the "availability of employment", the common underlying reason among the three races is that there is "another job awaiting them".

Part II

A Comparative Views on the Voluntary Labour Turnover Between the Personnel Managers and the Departing Employee

The purpose of this part II of chapter seven is to present the discussion on the Personnel Managers findings. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, the main aim of designing the Personnel Managers Questionnaire is to use it as a tool in assessing the reliability and frankness of both the Blue-collar workers and the Personnel Managers answers regarding the factor

influencing to voluntary labour turnover. It will be used to evaluate the similarities and differences between the Personnel Managers' views compare to the blue-collar workers response. The scope of the discussion will be limited to the discussion on the general characteristics, personal, organisational and external factors influencing voluntary labour turnover.

7.4. A Comparative Views on the General Characteristics of Voluntary Labour Turnover.

With regard to the general characteristic of voluntary labour turnover, the comparative analysis between the Personnel Managers and the blue-collar workers revealed that they differ on one variable that is level of education. The findings on the status of the blue-collar workers (refer to the part I of the findings chapter) shows that a majority of those who leave were among respondents who have better level of education than those who are less educated. This is true for all the three races.

A majority of the Personnel Managers, however, are of the opinion that most of those who left their organisations are among those with lower level of education.

The contradiction could arise from a number of sources:

(1) The respondents may have overstated their level of education. A review of literature on education background of

the blue-collar workers reveals that the majority of the blue-collar workers are among lower level of education (refer to page 76), but this study shows that majority of the respondents have the better level of education (upper secondary education).

The respondents also may not reveal their true academic qualifications when applying for the job. They only reveal the minimum qualifications required for the job. As indicated by some respondents they were more interested in getting the necessary experience to move into a better paying job somewhere else at the later stage (Already discussed in page 98).

(2) It could also be due to the fact that the respondents may have not reported their educational level achieved while working. They may be pursuing some courses during their leisure hours to prepare themselves for a better future.

On the otherhand, the Personnel Managers opinion might be based on their knowledge about the workers level of education only at the entry point. Another argument may be related to the manager's self ego bias. Effectiveness of a manager can also be gauged by his or her ability to instill loyalty among the workers to the company. A high voluntary labour turnover may reflect manager's inability to instill loyalty, therefore, it is not impossible to rule out the likelihood of the Personnel

Managers concealing the true picture about the calibre of the staff who voluntarily leave their company.

On the contrary, the analysis show a similarity between the response of the blue-collar workers with that of the Personnel Managers opinions on sex, marital status, age and length of service. Based on this observation, the profile of those who voluntarily leave their job are workers who are young, single, female, and with shorter length of service.

7.5. A Comparative Views on the Personal Factors Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover.

Looking at part II of chapter six, more than one factor has been cited by the Personnel Managers as influencing the turnover of blue-collar workers. Such factors are peculiar to each racial groups. For instance, the findings shows that more than 50% of the Personnel Managers agreed the opinion that family, health, locality and career developments as factors influencing the Malays to turnover. For the Chinese, they identified "to start own business", "career development", and "locality". Like the Malays, factor influencing the Indians as viewed by the Personnel Managers are attributed to "family", "Health", "Career development", and "locality".

These factors are found to be significant when the

response from the blue-collar workers are analysed. For instance, career development factor is significantly associated with the Chinese and the family problem is associated with the Indians. With regards to the Malays both family and career development, though not significant, are important factors influencing turnover.

7.6. A Comparative Views on the Organisational Factors Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover.

The blue-collar workers, irrespective of race regard pay as the only single most important factor behind voluntary labour turnover. But the Personnel Managers responses shows that the Malays and Indians are motivated by the same two factors - pay and job content. Whilst voluntary turnover among the Chinese is influenced by pay, promotion and job content.

The contradiction could arise in a number of ways:

With regard to job contents which are common to all races, it is expected that monotonous jobs drive away workers.

The possible explanation of promotion as peculiar to the Chinese by the Personnel Managers is based on the generally held belief that the Chinese are more competitive, therefore, they see promotion as a reward for the efforts and dedication to their work (already discussed in page 44).

Along the same line, the Chinese see themselves as

standing a better chance in getting promotion as management is more favourable towards promoting the Chinese to higher position compared to the other two races (Daud, 1985). Therefore, if the Chinese feel the prospect of promoting is bleak they move on to another organisation. As describe by Ness (1967) the Chinese are opportunist (Refer to page 44).

7.7. A Comparative Views on the External Factors Influencing Voluntary Labour Turnover.

A comparative analysis between the Personnel Managers and the blue-collar workers reports on external factors show consistent findings between both parties. Their opinions are similar in two external variables - alternative employment and job vacancy as important reasons for voluntary labour turnover. This result is expected for the following reason:

As noted in Chapter Three, the economic recovery after the 1985-86 recession indicates a turning point in an improvement of employment opportunities in the country. With the influx of investment, it seems a lot of jobs are available in the country. A large number of job vacancies and a serious of labour shortage in the manufacturing sector provide a great choice of alternative employment. Since this situation is obvious in the Malaysian environment, it is resonable to assume that both parties have the same idea in evaluating these factor as influencing variables to turnover.

CHAPTER EIGHT:

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

8.0. Introduction

This chapter begins with policy recommendations, followed by recommendations for future research and ends with concluding remarks in the area of study.

8.1. Policy Measures Hindering Labour Turnover

This section aims to put forward several measures and suggestions to reduce the problem of labour turnover in the country. In order to solve this problem effectively, the measures should cover three main levels; National, organisational and individual. In other words, the suggested measures will involve three parties; The Government and Malaysian society, the corporate sector and the organisations concerned and the individual workers for their own consideration and initiative to minimise this problem. The measures are as follows:

8.1.1. National Level.

As a developing country, the problem of labour turnover

should receive a great deal of attention in line with the Malaysian government strategies of attracting investors for the country's development. This objective could only be achieved if Malaysia manages to maintain a disciplined labour force. A disciplined labour force should be one of the most valuable assets to attract investors, especially when competing with other developing countries in South East Asia. The objective of this section is therefore, to offer various measures to both the Malaysian government and society in minimising the problem of labour turnover. It is hoped that this could finally secure economic growth in Peninsular Malaysia. The measures at the National level involve:

8.1.1.1. Matching the Demand and Supply of Manpower

The results of the present study illustrate that 72.5% of the Chinese, 72.5% of the Indian and 66.2% of the Malay respondents agree that the "availability of alternative employment" is one of the main reasons influencing their decision to voluntarily change jobs. Beside "the availability of alternative employment", 57.5% of the Chinese, 55% Indian, and 43.7% for the Malay agree with the idea that level of job vacancy is a major factor. In assessing this result, it seems that following the economic recovery, new jobs opportunity in the competitive labour market have contributed to high turnover

of workers. The shortage of labour following this economic recovery has encouraged workers to look for alternative employment in the country. Consequently, Companies have to compete against each other for a limited supply of skilled labour. The following measures may help to reduce voluntary turnover.

(a). Relocation of An Industrial Area

The actual situation of labour shortage in the country is pictured as unbalanced. It appears that only industrialised areas are facing labour shortages. The shortage of labour in such areas has tightened the labour market. It causes high rates of labour turnover due to the high need for workers. This then encourages the practices of "staff poaching" among industries in highly industrialised areas. For such a labour market situation, it seems that the suggestion from the Johore State Government (Malaysia: News Strait Time, Oct.13th. 1988f) to work out "investment action plans" by relocating part of the production facilities from highly industrialised areas to less industrialised areas where more labour is available seems quite useful in overcoming the problem of turnover. Even though in the short run the available labour might not be skilled enough for the work, but, the companies can still provide an apprenticeship program or with the Government initiative to

set up more training centres in such areas it will be a good strategy in the long run. The strategy, therefore, should provide an adequate supply of workers to meet the demand for establishments and consequently, could reduce staff poaching and labour turnover.

(b). Reduced Outflow of Malaysian Skilled Workers and Increased inflow of Foreign Skilled Workers

The review shows that the outflow of skilled Malaysian workers to neighbouring countries has been high. It is reported that 17,000 Malaysian skilled workers are working in Taiwan, 1,865 in Japan and a substantial amount are reported working in Singapore, Australia, New Zealand and Middle East Countries. This outflow is related to low wages offered in Malaysia compared to these other countries. Efforts, therefore, should be made to reduce this unfavourable outflow of skilled workers to neighbouring countries. It seems that this could only be achieved if Malaysian firms are willing to pay wages that are attractive and economical (Hoo et al., 1991).

Besides, reducing this outflow, Malaysia could also encourage and permit the inflow of foreign skilled workers such as from Indonesia, Thailand, Bangladesh, and Philippines to work in the manufacturing sector. It is known that such neighbouring countries are facing labour surplus, Several

thousands foreign workers are reported already working in the country (Hoo et al., 1991). Therefore, to the extent that labour shortage is a leading factor in labour turnover, the government could allow Malaysian firms to employ foreign skilled workers.

(c). Restructuring Educational System

With the implementation of the industrialisation policy, it shows that there is a high demand of skill workers in the country. The high demand is expected to continue in the future. Realising that Malaysia is still facing a shortage of skilled workers and that industrialisation and the development of the country is a priority, the long-run solution for labour problems should be through the restructuring of the national educational system. The Ministry of Education should respond speedily to the changes in line with the needs. The new educational system should be designed specifically towards producing trained Malaysians in science and technology. Efforts, therefore, should be made to educate her people with a broad outlook to subjects related to technical or industrial skills. With such a preparation in technological fields, her young people can be easily trained when entering the labour market after leaving school.

(d). Expansion of Training Centres

In line with the high demand for semi-skilled and skilled manpower and considering the implications of labour shortage to the country's development, the Government has to take steps to ensure that the supply of manpower could meet the demand. Therefore, certain measures to improve the supply such as expansion of existing training centres should be made to increase the supply of skilled manpower.

(e). Concentration of Labour Intensive Industries.

To understand the problem of labour shortage in the country it must be remembered that Malaysia is a newly industrialising nation and that manpower strategy should change with the process of industrialisation. Malaysia's strategy, therefore, should not be to stress labour intensive industries or low wages. She should, however, switch her policy to capital intensive, fair wages, high-technology and better utilisation of manpower. In line with this policy, consideration for future investment and approval new project in the country should be made to industries applying high degree of capital intensive with high-technology.

8.1.1.2. Standard Minimum Wages

In Peninsular Malaysia, there is no statutory minimum wage rate for manufacturing workers. Without such standard minimum wage rate, it appears that wages paid to industrial workers will vary from industry to industry. A situation with labour surplus has led to low wages offered by some factories. However, areas with a shortage of labour have put pressure on the employers to reward workers with better wages. Evidence shows that in some cases with a high demand for manpower, industries which offer low wages find difficulties in getting workers (Malaysian: The Star, Feb.6 1991b; Malaysia: The Star, April 29th 1988a; Hoo et.al., 1991a and Anshar, 1991).

It is, therefore, appropriate for the government to oversee this problem and if possible to set a new policy with regard to standard minimum wage rates for blue-collar workers. Important to note that the implementation of standard minimum wage has certain advantages and disadvantages. For instance, the advantage of a standard minimum wage might help to avoid a poor deal for Malaysian labour through low wages. All companies have to follow the starting wage which is set by the Government. As such, fair minimum wages can increase a worker's degree of satisfaction on the job and consequently can made the labour turnover process difficult. It is believed that there

might also be cases where companies will provide low wages for those who are desperate of getting a job in the labour surplus area. This, however, should be restricted by the Government. On the otherhand, a standard minimum wage has its own disadvantage. For example, the high paid industries will reduce the wages to the starting rate. In the competitive labour market, wages are determined by the supply and demand of labour. Therefore, the implementation of a minimum wage might not be practical because companies which compete for workers might not follow the standard minimum wage by offering high wages to get workers.

Even though there are advantages and disadvantages of a standard minimum wage and it is not demanded by the workers in the country, the researcher feels that it is timely for the government to reconsider this issue as a way of reducing "labour poaching" among industries. In this case, it appears that there is a crucial need for the Manpower Department to conduct a feasibility study to devise a standard minimum wage rate particularly for the blue-collar workers.

8.1.2. Organisational Level.

Beside the government, the organisations concerned can also play an important part to reduce the problem of labour

turnover in the country. The strategies include:

8.1.2.1. Mutual Cooperation Among Personnel Managers

In some parts of the industrial areas in Peninsular Malaysia, the Personnel Managers' Association has taken a step ahead as to reduce the "poaching of workers" among their organisations. This step includes mutual agreements which do not encourage the poaching of staff from surrounding industries. This mutual agreement has led to a harmonious working environment which slowed down labour turnover.

Areas where such cooperation does not exist may be due to the fact that the companies are competing among themselves operating different products, are too secretive with their own operations or they lack knowledge of others interested in such cooperation. Since in some areas this cooperation has been successful in reducing labour turnover problems it is recommended that this should apply to other industrial areas in the country.

8.1.2.2. In-House Training

It has been highlighted that "staff poaching" has caused high turnover in manufacturing industries. It is believed that

poaching of workers is related to shortage of workers and fast growing companies need urgently experienced workers for their operation. This problem however, could be overcome through strategic planning including training. The company can monitor in-house training according to their expansion plans and the need for particular skilled manpower. By training, workers will have better future. If the workers have the perception that they have bright future they will not think of quitting their jobs or to look for better jobs. As described in Daud (1985), about half of her respondents admitted that their intention of leaving the organisations is because their future in the organisation is not positive. It is recommended that the companies should have training programmes so that the workers can be retained.

8.1.2.3. Work Culture

In this study it is found that the workers in Malaysia leave their jobs mainly for better pay. For this aim, they keep on working if there are opportunities. This attitude will not make workers realise their prospect in the organisation such as internal promotions and job enrichment if they remain. In this respect, the work culture has to be changed.

In South Korea, for instance, the work culture is

different in the sense that salary is considered not an important factor for the workers to change their job. No organisation will employ any worker who has moved more than three times who is considered as a "Rolling Stone" with no loyalty. As such, the workers will remain in the organisation seeking better future (Malaysia: The Star, Feb.8 1991c).

It is recommended that Malaysian management philosophy should imitate such culture of retaining workers. To fulfill this the workers should be made known of their future and career prospects in the companies they work for.

8.1.3. Individual Workers Levels

Finally, it is felt that the individual workers can also provide some effort to reduce the problem of turnover. For instance, they can up-grade their education or experiences through attending off work courses. Since "paper qualifications" are considered one of the criteria for promotion in Peninsular Malaysia, moving jobs for more money is regard as short term advantage. In the long run, the workers who equip themselves with extra education have a better chance for higher position in their organisations.

In conclusion, the above suggestion should be made aware

to the Government and Business Community for their own approach to improve the problem of labour turnover in Peninsular Malaysia.

8.2. Recommendations For Future Research.

Because of several limitations faced by the researcher while undertaking this study, the results are therefore appropriate to the area of research. However, if a complete sampling frame of voluntary labour turnover exists in this country, future research should be carried out replicating the research questions in this study. With respect to extend its validity, it is recommended a replication of this research using random sampling should be carried out. Such replication could broaden the basis for generalisation to the whole population on voluntary labour turnover amongst the three races in Peninsular Malaysia.

As mentioned in the methodology of this thesis, this research is restricted to the study of voluntary labour turnover among the blue-collar workers (group seven to nine). It is therefore recommended that further research should also be carried out not only confining to this group of workers but also to all type of occupations. More interesting research could also be done on the factors influencing voluntary labour

turnover among the managers of the different ethnics group in Peninsular Malaysia.

Additionally, further research should also try to:

(i) Differentiate the factors influencing the turnover among various ethnic groups in different industries and areas, and should cover the rural or urban industrial area;

(ii) Study the consequences of voluntary labour turnover to the affected industries in Peninsular Malaysia; and

(iii) Develop a model of turnover decision process for the three major races in Peninsular Malaysia.

It is recommended that if given more time, money and information, a variety of research province studied as suggested above should be made. With this variety of studies, they should give a better picture on the voluntary labour turnover issue in Peninsular Malaysia.

8.3. Concluding Remarks.

The present study of voluntary labour turnover stresses a number of main findings which need to look into for further confirmation.

8.3.1. The results of the present study highlight that a

substantial majority of the voluntary labour turnover amongst blue-collar workers consists of young workers with shorter length of service, who are single, female, with secondary upper educational level and with less than five dependents. The results on these demographic characteristics show similarities among the Malays, the Chinese and the Indians.

8.3.2. The finding demonstrates that "personal factors" appear to have a significant influence on the decision of the three races in Peninsular Malaysia to change employments. The findings of the underlying reasons of this factor is however different among the three races. To the Chinese, the underlying reason is "Career Development". For the Indians, it is the "Family Reasons". Whilst for the Malays, it is a mixture of the "Family Reasons" and "Career Development".

8.3.3. With regard to the organisational factors, the present findings illustrate that pay is the only element which influences all the three races. The analysis of the underlying reasons of pay show that "dissatisfaction with pay" is the most common between the three races.

8.3.4. For the external factors, the results reveal that "availability of alternative employment" is statistically significant in influencing the three races. "The level of job

vacancy", however, is found to influence only the decisions of the Chinese and the Indians. As for the "availability of employment", the common underlying reason among the three races is that there is "another job awaiting them".

8.3.5. The results of the present study is consistent with the findings on voluntary labour turnover from other Third World countries such as Iraq, Hong Kong and Singapore, particularly which emphasise the manufacturing as the sector for the countrys' growth.

8.3.6. The results of this study have provided a better understanding of the pattern of voluntary labour turnover among different ethnic groups in a multiracial society such as Peninsular Malaysia. It helps to provide a better understanding in term of characteristics and factors influencing voluntary labour turnover. A close examination on general characteristics and factors which influence voluntary labour turnover among the various race groups can contribute some insight to personnel management in monitoring manpower strategies. For instance, the voluntary labour turnover profiles can be utilised as a primary ingredient for recruiting, motivating, and compensating plans. By probing further into the differences among various ethnic groups should give a better picture to industries in helping them maintaining a balance of racial employment. For instance,

compensation objective of the industries involved has to be more nonprofit or humanitarian. They should seek a suitable pay rate which is acceptable and manageable to attract all races joining their organisations. It is noted that the pay rate offered at the moment are too low compared to other Asian countries. In some cases the pay rate among the ethnic groups is not standardised. Amongst the ethnic groups, it is reported that the Malays and the Indians receive lower pay compared to the Chinese. Steps must be taken to eliminate any form of discrimination among the three races as to improve the disparity and the prejudices among the three groups. This will not only act as an investment to the workforce, but also as a tool to national unity. Finally, it helps the firms concerned to find suitable employees and also maintaining an adequate manpower supply. Consequently it can minimise training and recruiting costs.

8.3.7. The results of the study also imply that "racial background" and "culture" of the three major ethnic groups are important elements in understanding factors influencing voluntary labour turnover. It is Important to note that the three major races have different backgrounds such as different cultures, belief and values. Thus, this understanding may furnish the government with useful information on how to promote her policy in employing all ethnic groups in the

manufacturing sector as to eliminate the economic and racial disparities. Ignorance of the existence of such variables among the races can make the policy meaningless. As a result of that the imbalance employment among the races cannot be eliminated.

8.3.8. The result of the study also verifies that the economic recovery with new job opprtunities in the Malaysian competitive labour market has contributed to labour turnover.

EXHIBIT 5-1: LIST OF CLASSIFICATION OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS* IN THE SAMPLE

Industry	Code Group No.	Job Title
Wood	7-3	Wood Preparation Workers and Paper Makers**
	7-31	Wood Treaters
	7-32	Sawyers, plywood Makers and Related
	7-33	Paper Pulp Preparer
	7-34	Paper Makers
	8-1	Cabinetmakers and Related Woodmakers
	8-11	Cabinetmaker
	8-12	Woodworking Machine Operators
	8-19	Cabinetmakers and Related Woodworkers Not Elsewhere classified
Rubber	9-54	Carpenters, Joiners and Parquetry Workers
	7-4	Chemical Processors and Related Workers ***
	7-46	Rubber Processing Workers
	7-49	Chemical Processors and Related Workers Not Elsewhere Classified
	9-0	Rubber and Plastics Product Makers
	9-01	Rubber Product Makers (except Tyre Makers and Tyre Vulcanisers)
Textile	9-02	Tyre Makers and Vulcanisers
	7-5	Spinners, Weavers, Knitters, Dryers and Related Workers
	7-51	Fibre Preparers
	7-52	Spinners and Winders
	7-53	Weaving and Knitting-Machine Setters and Pattern Card Preparers
	7-54	Weavers and Related Workers
	7-55	Knitters
	7-56	Bleachers, Dryers and Textile Product Finishers
	7-59	Spinners, Weavers, Knitters, Dryers and Related Workers not elsewhere classified
	7-9	Tailors, dressmakers, Sewers, Upholsterers and related Workers
	7-91	Tailors and Dressmakers
	7-93	Milliners and Hatmakers
	7-94	Patternmakers and Cutters
	7-95	Sewers and Embroiderers
	7-96	Upholsterers and related Workers
	7-99	Tailors, Dressmakers, Sewers, Upholsterers and Related Workers Not Elsewhere Classified
	8-4	Machinery Fitters, Assemblers, Repairers and Precision- Instrument Makers (Except Electrical)
	8-41	Machinery Fitters, Assemblers and Repairers

Industry	Code Group No.	Job Title
<hr/>		
Food	7-7	Food and Beverage Processors
	7-71	Grain Millers and Related Workers
	7-72	Sugar Processors and Refiners
	7-73	Butchers and Meat Preparers
	7-74	Food Preservers
	7-75	Dairy Products Processors
	7-76	Bakers, Pastry Cooks and Confectionery Makers
	7-77	Tea, Coffee and Cocoa Preparers
	7-78	Brewers, Wine and Beverage Makers
	7-79	Food and Beverage Processors Not Elsewhere Classified
Electrical	8-5	Electrical Fitters and Related Electrical and Electronics Workers
	8-51	Electrical Fitters
	8-52	Electronics Fitters
	8-53	Electrical and Electronic Equipment Assemblers
	8-54	Radio and television Repairmen
	8-55	Electrical Wiremen
	8-56	Telephone and Telegraph
	8-57	Electric Linemen and Cable Jointers
	8-59	Electrical Fitters and Related Electrical and Electronics Workers Not Else Where Classified

* Eventhough the classification of blue-collar workers are provided as above, some factories used different terms for the above group of workers. But, they are still doing the same type of job as been defined in the Dictionary of Occupational Classification (1980). Care, however, has been taken with the assistance of the personnel manager of the firm concerned as to grantee that the respondents are still belong to the blue-collar workers group 7 to 9.

** For the purpose of this study, blue-collar workers for this categories will only confined to Wood Industry. Excluding are workers in paper industry.

*** For the purpose of this study, blue-collar workers for this categories will only confined to Rubber Industry. Excluding are workers in Chemical industry.

January 1990

RESEARCH ON LABOUR TURNOVER IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA

Dear Sir,

A survey is currently being undertaken on Blue-Collar worker turnover in Peninsular Malaysia. This survey covers five types of manufacturing industries in three major cities.

Beside fulfilling the requirements for a Ph.d of The University of Stirling, Scotland, this research will hopefully be a great use to me in my career as a lecturer with University Sains Malaysia. The results of this survey will be most useful for both the private as well as public sectors, especially for the future policy making of these establishments.

Even though I have made provision, for names and addresses of respondents to be recorded, please be assured that all information provided will be treated in the strictest confidence.

Your cooperation and assistance is highly appreciated.

Thank You

Yours Sincerely,

ABDUL RAZAK HJ OMAR,
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT,
UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING,
STIRLING, FK9 4LA,
SCOTLAND, UNITED KINGDOM.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE BEGINS ON THE FOLLOWING PAGE

APPENDIX 2

V1[] [] [] 11

BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Sir/Madam,

PLEASE TICK [/] ONE ANSWER (THE CLOSEST) ONLY FOR EACH QUESTION.

THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. THIS IS ONLY A SURVEY.

PLEASE ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS.

YOUR RESPONSE TO SOME QUESTIONS MAY DICTATE THAT YOU SKIP THE FOLLOWING QUESTION WHERE THIS OCCURS, THIS WILL BE INDICATED.

BLANK SPACE ON COL.4 [] 0.
DO NOT
WRITE HERE

SECTION A : GENERAL FACTORS

1. Location of your previous occupation?

V02[] 0.

- | | |
|--------------|-------|
| Kuala Lumpur | [] 1 |
| Johor Bahru | [] 2 |
| Pulau Pinang | [] 3 |
| Others | [] 4 |

(If your answer is "others", please terminate this questionnaire)

2. Location of your present occupation?

V03[] 0.

- | | |
|--------------|-------|
| Kuala Lumpur | [] 1 |
| Johor Bahru | [] 2 |
| Pulau Pinang | [] 3 |
| Others | [] 4 |

3. Type of Previous industry you were working with?

V04[] 0

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------|
| Wood and Wood Products | [] 1 |
| Textiles Products | [] 2 |
| Electrical dan Eletronic Products | [] 3 |
| Food Products | [] 4 |
| Rubber Products | [] 5 |
| Others | [] 6 |

(If your answer is "others", please terminate this questionnaire)

4. Type of Present industry you were working with? V05[]08
- | | |
|------------------------------------|------|
| Wood and Wood Products | []1 |
| Textiles Products | []2 |
| Electrical and Electronic Products | []3 |
| Food Products | []4 |
| Rubber Products | []5 |
| Others | []6 |
5. Total number of worker in your previous work unit? V06[]09-
-

SECTION B : DEMOGRAPHICS AND PERSONAL FACTORS

6. Age on your last birthday? V07[]13
- | | |
|--------------------|------|
| 15 to 19 years old | []1 |
| 20 to 24 years old | []2 |
| 25 to 29 years old | []3 |
| 30 to 34 years old | []4 |
| 35 to 39 years old | []5 |
| 40 to 44 years old | []6 |
| 45 to 49 years old | []7 |
| 50 or more yrs.old | []8 |
7. Age at start of employment? V08[]14
- | | |
|--------------------|------|
| 15 to 19 years old | []1 |
| 20 to 24 years old | []2 |
| 25 to 29 years old | []3 |
| 30 to 34 years old | []4 |
| 35 to 39 years old | []5 |
| 40 or more yrs.old | []6 |
8. Age at time of first voluntarily resignation? V09[]15
- | | |
|--------------------|------|
| 15 to 19 years old | []1 |
| 20 to 24 years old | []2 |
| 25 to 29 years old | []3 |
| 30 to 34 years old | []4 |
| 35 to 39 years old | []5 |
| 40 or more yrs.old | []6 |

9. Age at time of last voluntarily resignation? V10[]16
- | | |
|--------------------|------|
| 15 to 19 years old | []1 |
| 20 to 24 years old | []2 |
| 25 to 29 years old | []3 |
| 30 to 34 years old | []4 |
| 35 to 39 years old | []5 |
| 40 or more yrs.old | []6 |
10. Number (s) of voluntarily resignations since initial employment? V11[]17
- | | | | |
|-------|------|---------------|------|
| One | []1 | Two | []2 |
| Three | []3 | Four | []4 |
| Five | []5 | Six | []6 |
| Seven | []6 | Eight or More | []7 |
11. Details of dates of resignations since initial employment in industry. (in chronological order)
Date/Month/Year
- _____
- _____
12. Length of service with last employer? V12[]18
- | | |
|----------------|------|
| 0 to 6 month | []1 |
| 7 to 12 month | []2 |
| 13 to 18 month | []3 |
| 19 to 24 month | []4 |
| 25 to 30 month | []5 |
| 31 to 36 month | []6 |
| 37 or more | []7 |
13. Number (s) of job holds since initial employment? V13[]19
- | | | | |
|-------|------|---------------|------|
| One | []1 | Two | []2 |
| Three | []3 | Four | []4 |
| Five | []5 | Six | []6 |
| Seven | []7 | Eight or More | []8 |
14. Marital Status? V14[]20
- | | |
|-----------------------|------|
| Single | []1 |
| Married no children | []2 |
| Married with children | []3 |
| Divorced / Widowed | []4 |

-
15. Sex? V15[]21
- Male []1
Female []2
16. Race? V16[]22
- Malay []1
Chinese []2
Indian []3
Others []4
17. Total Number in your family? V17[]23
- One []1 Two []2
Three []3 Four []4
Five []5 Six []6
Seven []7 Eight or More []8
18. Number of dependents in your family? V18[]24
- One []1 Two []2
Three []3 Four []4
Five []5 Six []6
Seven []7 Eight or More []8
19. Level of education achieved? V19[]25
- No education at all []1
Completed Standard Six []2
Lower Certificate of Education []3
Malaysian Certificate of Education []4
Technical School Certificate []5
Other qualification: []6
(Please specify)
-
20. Years of Education? V20[]26
- 0 to 6 years []1
7 to 13 years []2
14 to 20 years []3
21 or more []4

21. Did you leave your previous employer because of personal factors?
Example of personal factors are as below:

- | | | | | |
|---|-----|------|--|----------|
| a. Family problems | | | | V21[]27 |
| b. Health problems | YES | []1 | | |
| c. To start own business | NO | []2 | | |
| d. Join other services | | | | |
| e. Going for further studies | | | | |
| f. Transportation problems | | | | |
| g. Housing problems | | | | |
| h. Career Development problems | | | | |
| i. Desire to work at place of residence | | | | |

(If your answer is 'YES', please answer question 22.
If 'NO' go straight to question 23).

22. If you have chosen "1" as your answer in Q21, to what extent have the following statements relating to personal reasons influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job? (Check one for each factor).

STATEMENT	STRONGLY					STRONGLY	
	AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	DISAGREE		
I left my previous job because of:							
a. Family problems	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V22[]28	
b. Health problems	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V23[]29	
c. Starting own business	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V24[]30	
						BLANK SPACE ON COL.31	[]31
d. Joining other services	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V25[]32	
						V25[]32	
e. Going for further studies	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V26[]33	
f. Transportation problems	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V27[]34	
g. Housing problems	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V28[]35	
h. Career Development problems	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V29[]36	
i. Desire to work at place of residence	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V30[]37	

SECTION C: ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS

23. In your view, (based on your previous job experience), to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following factors as having influenced your decision to leave voluntarily.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE		
a. Pay	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V31[]	38
b. Promotion	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V32[]	39
c. Supervisory Practices	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V33[]	40
d. Peer Group Interaction	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V34[]	41
e. Work Unit Size	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V35[]	42
f. Job Content	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V36[]	43
g. Job Security	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V37[]	44
h. Working Conditions	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V38[]	45
i. Working Hours	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V39[]	46

The following questions indicate your reasons for voluntarily resignation by placing a tick [/] in the space provided for each question.

24. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q23(a), to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your feeling towards pay as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job? (Otherwise proceed to question 25).

STATEMENT	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
-----------	-------------------	-------	-----------	----------	----------------------

I left my previous job because the pay that I received was:

a. Lower than that of present job	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V40[]	47
b. Less than I deserved	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V41[]	48
c. Inadequate compared to my qualifications	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V42[]	49
d. Inadequate for normal expenses	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V43[]	50
e. Not satisfied	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V44[]	51

25. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q23(b), to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your feeling towards promotion as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job?
(Otherwise proceed to question 26).

STATEMENT	STRONGLY			STRONGLY		
	AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	DISAGREE	
a. It was a dead-end job	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V45[]52
b. Previous employer practiced an unfair promotion policy	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V46[]53
c. There were few opportunities for promotion	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V47[]54
d. I had been offered a better position by my present employer	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V48[]55
						BLANK SPACE ON COL.56 []56
e. I was not satisfied with the promotion system	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V49[]57

BLANK SPACE ON COL.56 []56

26. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q23(c), to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your feeling towards supervisory practices as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job?
(Otherwise proceed to question 27).

STATEMENT	STRONGLY			STRONGLY		
	AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	DISGREE	
a. My previous supervisor was too concerned with production	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V50[]58
b. My previous supervisor was not concerned with his employees	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V51[]59
c. My previous supervisor practiced an authoritarian style	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V52[]60
d. I was dissatisfied with my previous supervisor	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V53[]61
e. I received inequitable treatment from						
previous supervisor	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V54[]62

27. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q23(d), to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your feeling towards peer group interaction as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job?
(Otherwise proceed to question 28).

STATEMENT	STRONGLY					STRONGLY
	AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	DISGREE	
I left my previous job because:						
a. There was a lack of team spirit among the peer group	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V55[]63
b. I was not satisfied with my fellow workers	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V56[]64
c. There was no opportunity to talk among the previous peer group	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V57[]65
d. It was easy to make enemies among previous peer group	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V58[]66
e. I did not have close friends	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V59[]67
f. There was inequity interaction among peer group	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V60[]68

28. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q23(e), to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your feeling towards work units size as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job?
(Otherwise proceed to question 29).

STATEMENT	STRONGLY					STRONGLY
	AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	DISGREE	
I left my previous job because:						
a. It work unit is too crowded	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V61[]69

29. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q23(f), to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your feeling towards job content as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job? (Otherwise proceed to question 30).

STATEMENT	STRONGLY				STRONGLY	
	AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	DISGREE	
I left my previous job because:						
a. It was a routine job	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V62[]70
b. I was given less responsibility	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V63[]71
c. I received less autonomy	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V64[]72
d. It was too demanding	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V65[]73

30. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q23(g), to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your feeling towards job security as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job? (Otherwise proceed to question 31).

STATEMENT	STRONGLY					STRONGLY
	AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	DISGREE	
I left my previous job because:						
a. It was not secure	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V66[]74
b. Only a temporary job	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V67[]75
c. I was not satisfied with job security	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V68[]76
d. I was avoiding being dismissed	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V69[]77

31. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q23(h), to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your feeling towards working conditions as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job?
(Otherwise proceed to question 32).

STATEMENT	STRONGLY					STRONGLY
	AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	DISGREE	
I left my previous job because:						
a. The working conditions were not secure	[] 5	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	V70[] 78
b. The working conditions were unhealthy	[] 5	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	V71[] 79
c. I was not satisfied with the working conditions	[] 5	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	V72[] 105

32. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q23(i), to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your feeling toward working hours as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job?
(Otherwise proceed to question 33).

STATEMENT	STRONGLY					STRONGLY
	AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	DISGREE	
I left my previous job because:						
a. I was not satisfied with the working hours	[] 5	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	V73[] 106
b. The working hours were too long	[] 5	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	V74[] 107

SECTION D: EXTERNAL FACTOR

33. In your view, (based on your previous job experience), to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following external factors as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job.

STATEMENT	STRONGLY					STRONGLY
	AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	DISGREE	
a. The availability of alternative employment	[] 5	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	V75[] 108
b. The level of job vacancy	[] 5	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	V76[] 109
c. The level of unemployment	[] 5	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	V77[] 110

34. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q33(a), to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your feelings toward the availability of alternative employment as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job? (Otherwise proceed to question 35).

STATEMENT	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISGREE	
a. I left my previous job because there was another job	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V78[]11

35. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q33(b), to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your feeling towards the level of job vacancy as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job? (Otherwise proceed to question 36).

STATEMENT	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISGREE	
a. I left my previous job because there was a lot of job vacancies in the labour market at that time	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V79[]12

36. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q33(c), to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your feeling towards the level of unemployment as having influenced your decision to voluntarily leave your previous job?

STATEMENT	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISGREE	
a. I left my previous job because the level of unemployment was very low	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1	V80[]13

January 1990

KAJIAN PERUBAHAN PERKERJAAN DI SEMENANJUNG MALAYSIA

TUAN/PUAN,

Satu kajian perubahan perkerjaan keatas pekerja-pekerja kolar-biru sedang dijalankan di Semenanjung Malaysia pada waktu ini. Kajian ini meliputi lima jenis industri dalam sektor pembuatan di tiga buah bandaraya utama di Semenanjung Malaysia.

Disamping memenuhi keperluan pengajian di peringkat Ph.D di University of Stirling, Scotland, kajian ini juga diharapkan akan berguna dalam kareer saya sebagai pensyarah di Universiti Sains Malaysia. Hasil kajian ini adalah lebih berguna untuk sektor swasta dan awam, terutamanya untuk pembuatan keputusan pada masa hadapan bagi firma-firma yang terlibat.

Walaupun saya menyediakan ruang untuk nama dan alamat responden yang perlu direkodkan, kami akan memastikan bahawa segala maklumat yang diberikan akan dianggap sulit.

Segala kerjasama tuan/puan amatlah saya hargai.

Terimakasih.

Yang Benar,

ABDUL RAZAK HJ OMAR
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT
UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING
STIRLING, FK9 4LA
SCOTLAND, UNITED KINGDOM

SOAL-SELIDIK BERMULA DARI MUKA SEBELAH.

LAMPIRAN 2

V01[]1-3

SOAL-SELIDIK PEKERJA-PEKERJA KOLAR BIRU

TUAN/PUAN,

SILA TANDAKAN [/] SATU JAWAPAN (YANG TERDEKAT) SAHAJA BAGI SETIAP SOALAN.
 TIADA JAWAPAN YANG BETUL ATAU SALAH. INI HANYA SATU KAJIAN SAHAJA.

SILA JAWAB SEMUA SOALAN.

JAWAPAN ANDA MUNGKIN MENGEQUALIKAN DARI MENJAWAB SOALAN-SOALAN BERIKUTNYA, DALA
 SITUASI INI IA AKAN DINYATAKAN.

KOSONGKAN KOL.04 []04
 JANGAN TULIS
 DI RUANG INI

BAHAGIAN A : FAKTOR-FAKTOR UMUM

1. Lokasi tempat kerja anda yang lalu?

V02[]05

Kuala Lumpur	[]1
Johor Bahru	[]2
Pulau Pinang	[]3
Lain-Lain Tempat	[]4

(Kalau jawapan anda "lain-lain tempat", sila berhentikan soal-selidik ini)

2. Lokasi tempat kerja anda sekarang?

V03[]06

Kuala Lumpur	[]1
Johor Bahru	[]2
Pulau Pinang	[]3
Lain-lain Tempat	[]4

3. Jenis industri tempat pekerjaan anda yang lalu?

V04[]07

Kayu dan Barang-Barang Keluaran Kayu	[] 1
Barang-Barang Keluaran Tekstil	[] 2
Barang-Barang Elektrik dan Eletronik	[] 3
Barang-Barang Keluaran Makanan	[] 4
Barang-Barang keluaran getah	[] 5
Lain-lain industri	[] 6

(Jika jawapan anda "lain-lain industri", sila berhentikan soal-selidik ini)

4. Jenis industri tempat pekerjaan anda sekarang? V05[]08
- | | |
|--------------------------------------|------|
| Kayu dan Barang-Barang Keluaran Kayu | []1 |
| Barang-Barang Keluaran Tekstil | []2 |
| Barang-Barang Elektrik dan Eletronik | []3 |
| Barang-Barang Keluaran Makanan | []4 |
| Barang-Barang Keluaran getah | []5 |
| Lain-lain industri | []6 |

5. Jumlah pekerja dalam unit kerja anda yang lalu? V06[]09-1.
- _____ orang pekerja

BAHAGIAN B : FAKTOR-FAKTOR KEPENDUDUKAN DAN PERIBADI

6. Umur anda pada tarikh lahir yang lalu? V07[]13
- | | |
|--------------------|------|
| 15 hingga 19 tahun | []1 |
| 20 hingga 24 tahun | []2 |
| 25 hingga 29 tahun | []3 |
| 30 hingga 34 tahun | []4 |
| 35 hingga 39 tahun | []5 |
| 40 hingga 44 tahun | []6 |
| 45 hingga 49 tahun | []7 |
| 50 tahun ke atas | []8 |
7. Umur anda ketika mula bekerja? V08[]14
- | | |
|--------------------|------|
| 15 hingga 19 tahun | []1 |
| 20 hingga 24 tahun | []2 |
| 25 hingga 29 tahun | []3 |
| 30 hingga 34 tahun | []4 |
| 35 hingga 39 tahun | []5 |
| 40 tahun keatas | []6 |
8. Umur anda ketika pertama kali berhenti kerja secara sukarela? V09[]15
- | | |
|--------------------|------|
| 15 hingga 19 tahun | []1 |
| 20 hingga 24 tahun | []2 |
| 25 hingga 29 tahun | []3 |
| 30 hingga 34 tahun | []4 |
| 35 hingga 39 tahun | []5 |
| 40 tahun keatas | []6 |

9. Umur anda ketika kali terakhir berhenti kerja secara sukarela? V10[]16
- 15 hingga 19 tahun []1
 20 hingga 24 tahun []2
 25 hingga 29 tahun []3
 30 hingga 34 tahun []4
 35 hingga 39 tahun []5
 40 tahun keatas []6
10. Berapa banyak kali berhenti kerja secara sukarela semenjak pekerjaan pertama? V11[]17
- Satu []1 Dua []2
 Tiga []3 Empat []4
 Lima []5 Enam []6
 Tujuh []7 Lapan atau Lebih []8
11. Sebutkan tarikh-tarikh berhenti kerja dalam industri semenjak pekerjaan yang pertama (mengikut urutan masa)
 Tarikh/Bulan/Masa
- _____
- _____
12. Lama berkhidmat dengan majikan terakhir? V12[]18
- 0 hingga 6 bulan []1
 7 hingga 12 bulan []2
 13 hingga 18 bulan []3
 19 hingga 24 bulan []4
 25 hingga 30 bulan []5
 31 hingga 36 bulan []6
 37 bulan ke atas []7
13. Bilangan Pekerjaan yang dijawati semenjak yang pertama? V13[]19
- Satu []1 Dua []2
 Tiga []3 Empat []4
 Lima []5 Enam []6
 Tujuh []7 Lapan atau Lebih []8
14. Taraf Perkahwinan? V14[]20
- Bujang []1
 Berkahwin tanpa anak []2
 Berkahwin dan Mempunyai anak []3
 Bercerai/Balu []4

-
15. Jantina? V15[]21
- Lelaki []1
Perempuan []2
16. Bangsa? V16[]22
- Melayu []1
China []2
India []3
lain-lain bangsa []4
17. Bilangan ahli dalam keluarga? V17[]23
- Satu []1 Dua []2
Tiga []3 Empat []4
Lima []5 Enam []6
Tujuh []7 Lapan ke atas []8
18. Bilangan tanggungan di dalam keluarga? V18[]24
- Satu []1 Dua []2
Tiga []3 Empat []4
Lima []5 Enam []6
Tujuh []7 Lapan ke atas []8
19. Taraf pendidikan? V19[]25
- Tiada pendidikan langsung []1
Tamat Darjah Enam []2
Sijil Rendah Pelajaran []3
Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia []4
Sijil Sekolah Teknik []5
lain-lain kelayakan (sebutkan) []6
-
20. Lama belajar? V20[]26
- 0 hingga 6 tahun []1
7 hingga 13 tahun []2
14 hingga 20 tahun []3
21 ke atas []4

21. Adakah anda meninggalkan pekerjaan yang lalu disebabkan oleh faktor peribadi? Contoh faktor peribadi adalah seperti berikut:

- a. Masalah keluarga
 - b. Masalah kesihatan
 - c. Memulakan perniagaan sendiri
 - d. Memasuki perkhidmatan lain
 - e. Melanjutkan pelajaran
 - f. Masalah pengangkutan
 - g. Masalah tempat tinggal
 - h. Masalah peningkatan kerjaya
 - i. Ingin berkerja di tempat sendiri.
- (Jika jawapan anda "YA" sila jawab soalan "22".
Jika tidak terus menjawab soalan 23).

V21[]27

YA []1

TIDAK []2

22. Jika anda memilih "1" sebagai jawapan soalan 21, sejauh manakah anda bersetuju dengan faktor-faktor berikut yang berkaitan dengan sebab-sebab peribadi telah mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela didalam pekerjaan yang lalu? (Tandakan bagi setiap faktor).

KENYATAAN	SANGAT BERSETUJU	BER- SETUJU	TIDAK PASTI	TIDAK BERSETUJU	SANGAT TIDAK BERSETUJU		
Saya berhenti kerja kerana:							
a.Masalah Keluarga	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V22[]28	
b.Masalah kesihatan	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V23[]29	
c.Memulakan per- niagaan sendiri	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V24[]30	
							Kosongkan Kol.31 []31
d.Memasuki per- khidmatan lain	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V25[]32	
e.Melanjutkan pelajaran	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V26[]33	
f.Masalah pengangkutan	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V27[]34	
g.Masalah perumahan	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V28[]35	
h.Masalah peningkatan kerjaya	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V29[]36	
i.Ingin berkerja di tempat sendiri	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V30[]37	

BAHAGIAN C: SOALAN MENGENAI ORGANISASI

23. Pada pendapat anda (berdasarkan pengalaman kerja di masa yang lalu) sejauh manakah anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju bahawa faktor-faktor berikut telah mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela.

	SANGAT BER- SETUJU	BER- SETUJU	TIDAK PASTI	TIDAK BER- SETUJU	SANGAT TIDAK BERSETUJU		
a. Bayaran	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V31[]	J38
b. Kenaikan pangkat	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V32[]	J39
c. Amalan penyeliaan	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V33[]	J40
d. Interaksi kawan sekerja	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V34[]	J41
e. Saiz unit kerja	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V35[]	J42
f. Kandungan kerja	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V36[]	J43
g. Jaminan Kerja	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V37[]	J44
h. Keadaan tempat kerja	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V38[]	J45
i. Masa berkerja	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V39[]	J46

Soalan-soalan berikut menyatakan sebab-sebab anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela. Tandakan [/] pada ruang yang disediakan bagi setiap soalan.

24. Jika anda telah memilih "1" atau "2" sebagai jawapan bagi soalan 23(a), sejauh manakah anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju dengan kenyataan berikut berkenaan perasaan anda terhadap bayaran sebagai faktor yang mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela? (Jika tidak, terus menjawab soalan 25).

KENYATAAN	SANGAT BER- SETUJU	BER- SETUJU	TIDAK PASTI	TIDAK BER- SETUJU	SANGAT TIDAK BERSETUJU		
Saya berhenti kerja kerana bayaran yang saya terima adalah:							
a. Lebih rendah daripada bayaran kerja sekarang	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V40[]	J47
b. Rendah daripada yang patut saya terima	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V41[]	J48
c. Tidak cukup jika dibandingkan dengan kelayakan saya	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V42[]	J49
d. Tidak cukup untuk perbelanjaan biasa	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V43[]	J50
e. Tidak memuaskan hati	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V44[]	J51

- | | | | | | |
|-----------|------------------|-----------|-------------|-----------------|------------------------|
| KENYATAAN | SANGAT BERSETUJU | BERSETUJU | TIDAK PASTI | TIDAK BERSETUJU | SANGAT TIDAK BERSETUJU |
|-----------|------------------|-----------|-------------|-----------------|------------------------|

a. Tidak ada masa depan dalam pekerjaan	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V45[]52
b. Majikan lama mengamalkan polisi kenaikan pangkat yang tidak adil	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V46[]53
c. Peluang untuk kenaikan pangkat sangat sedikit	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V47[]54
d. Saya telah ditawarkan jawatan yang lebih baik oleh majikan sekarang	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V48[]55
						Kosongkan Kol.56 []56
e. Saya tidak berpuas hati dengan sistem kenaikan pangkat	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V49[]57

- | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| | SANGAT
BER-
SETUJU | BER-
SETUJU | TIDAK
PASTI | TIDAK
BER-
SETUJU | SANGAT
TIDAK
BERSETUJU |
|--|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|

a. Penyelia saya ter- lalu mementingkan pengeluaran	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V50[]58
b. Penyelia saya tidak mementingkan pekerja	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V51[]59
c. Penyelia saya meng- amalkan gaya yang otoritatif(kuku besi)	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V52[]60
d. Saya tidak berpuas hati dengan penyelia yang lalu	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V53[]61
e. Saya menerima layanan yang tidak adil daripada penyelia yang lalu	[]1	[]2	[]3	[]4	[]5	V54[]62

27. Jika anda memilih "1" atau "2" sebagai jawapan bagi soalan 23(d), sejauh manakah anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju dengan kenyataan berikut berkenaan perasaan anda terhadap interaksi kawan sekerja sebagai faktor yang mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela? (Jika tidak terus menjawab soalan 28)

KENYATAAN	SANGAT BER- SETUJU	BER- SETUJU	TIDAK PASTI	TIDAK BER- SETUJU	SANGAT TIDAK BERSETUJU
-----------	--------------------------	----------------	----------------	-------------------------	------------------------------

Saya berhenti kerja kerana:

- | | | | | | | |
|---|------|------|------|------|------|----------|
| a. kekurangan semangat bekerja secara kumpulan dikalangan rakan sekerja | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V55[]63 |
| b. Saya tidak berpuas hati dengan rakan sekerja | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V56[]64 |
| c. Tidak ada peluang berbual dengan rakan sekerja yang lalu | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V57[]65 |
| d. Sangat mudah mencari musuh di kalangan rakan sekerja | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V58[]66 |
| e. Saya tidak mempunyai teman yang rapat | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V59[]67 |
| f. Adanya interaksi yang tidak adil di kalangan teman sekerja | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V60[]68 |

28. Jika anda memilih "1" atau "2" sebagai jawapan bagi soalan 23(e), sejauh manakah anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju dengan kenyataan berikut berkenaan perasaan anda terhadap saiz unit kerja sebagai faktor yang mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela? (Jika tidak terus menjawab soalan 29)

KENYATAAN	SANGAT BER- SETUJU	BER- SETUJU	TIDAK PASTI	TIDAK BER- SETUJU	SANGAT TIDAK BERSETUJU
-----------	--------------------------	----------------	----------------	-------------------------	------------------------------

Saya berhenti kerja kerana:

- | | | | | | | |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|----------|
| a. Unit kerja yang lalu adalah terlalu ramai | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V61[]69 |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|----------|

29. Jika anda memilih "1" atau "2" sebagai jawapan bagi soalan 23(f), sejauh manakah anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju dengan kenyataan berikut berkenaan perasaan anda terhadap kandungan kerja sebagai faktor yang mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela? (Jika tidak terus menjawab soalan 30)

KENYATAAN	SANGAT BER- SETUJU	BER- SETUJU	TIDAK PASTI	TIDAK BER- SETUJU	SANGAT TIDAK BERSETUJU
-----------	--------------------------	----------------	----------------	-------------------------	------------------------------

Saya berhenti kerja kerana:

- | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|----------|
| a. Ia kerja yang berulang-ulang | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V62[]70 |
| b. Saya diberi kurang tanggung-jawab | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V63[]71 |
| c. Saya menerima kurang otonomi | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V64[]72 |
| d. Kerja yang terlalu membebankan | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V65[]73 |

30. Jika anda memilih "1" atau "2" sebagai jawapan bagi soalan 23(g), sejauh manakah anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju dengan kenyataan berikut berkenaan perasaan anda terhadap jaminan kerja sebagai faktor yang mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela? (Jika tidak, terus menjawab soalan 31).

KENYATAAN	SANGAT BER- SETUJU	BER- SETUJU	TIDAK PASTI	TIDAK BER- SETUJU	SANGAT TIDAK BERSETUJU
-----------	--------------------------	----------------	----------------	-------------------------	------------------------------

Saya berhenti kerja kerana:

- | | | | | | | |
|---|------|------|------|------|------|----------|
| a. Ia tidak ada jaminan | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V66[]74 |
| b. Ia hanya kerja sambilan | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V67[]75 |
| c. Saya tidak berpuas hati dengan jaminan pekerjaan | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V68[]76 |
| d. Saya mengelak dari dibuang | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V69[]77 |

31. Jika anda memilih "1" atau "2" sebagai jawapan bagi soalan 23(h), sejauh manakah anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju dengan kenyataan berikut berkenaan perasaan anda terhadap keadaan tempat kerja sebagai faktor yang mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela? (Jika tidak, terus menjawab soalan 32)

	SANGAT	BER-	TIDAK	TIDAK	SANGAT	
KENYATAAN	BER-	SETUJU	PASTI	BER-	TIDAK	
	SETUJU			SETUJU	BERSETUJU	

Saya berhenti kerja kerana:

- | | | | | | | |
|---|------|------|------|------|------|----------|
| a. Keadaan tempat kerja tidak selamat | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V70[]78 |
| b. Keadaan tempat kerja tidak sihat | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V71[]79 |
| c. Saya tidak puas hati dengan keadaan tempat kerja | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V72[]05 |

32. Jika anda memilih "1" atau "2" sebagai jawapan bagi soalan 23(i), sejauh manakah anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju dengan kenyataan berikut berkenaan perasaan anda terhadap masa berkerja sebagai faktor yang mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela? (Jika tidak, terus menjawab soalan 33)

	SANGAT	BER-	TIDAK	TIDAK	SANGAT	
KENYATAAN	BER-	SETUJU	PASTI	BER-	TIDAK	
	SETUJU			SETUJU	BERSETUJU	

Saya berhenti kerja kerana:

- | | | | | | | |
|---|------|------|------|------|------|----------|
| a. Tidak berpuas hati dengan waktu berkerja | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V73[]06 |
| b. Waktu berkerja terlalu lama | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V74[]07 |

BAHAGIAN D: FAKTOR LUARAN

33. Pada pandangan anda (berdasarkan pengalaman bekerja yang lalu) sejauh manakah anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju dengan faktor-faktor luaran yang berikut sebagai telah mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela.

	SANGAT	BER-	TIDAK	TIDAK	SANGAT	
KENYATAAN	BER-	SETUJU	PASTI	BER-	TIDAK	
	SETUJU			SETUJU	BERSETUJU	

Saya berhenti kerja kerana:

- | | | | | | | |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|----------|
| a. Adanya pilihan bagi pekerjaan yang lain | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V75[]08 |
| b. Tahap kekosongan jawatan | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V76[]09 |
| c. Tahap pengangguran | []1 | []2 | []3 | []4 | []5 | V77[]10 |

34. Jika anda telah memilih "1" atau "2" sebagai jawapan bagi soalan 33(a), sejauh manakah anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju dengan kenyataan berikut berkenaan perasaan anda terhadap faktor adanya pilihan kerja lain sebagai telah mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela? (Jika tidak, terus menjawab soalan 35)

	SANGAT	BER-	TIDAK	TIDAK	SANGAT
	BER-	SETUJU	PASTI	BER-	TIDAK
KENYATAAN	SETUJU			SETUJU	BERSETUJU

- a. Saya berhenti kerja yang lalu kerana

adanya kerja baru ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

V78[]11

35. Jika anda telah memilih "1" atau "2" sebagai jawapan bagi soalan 33(b), sejauh manakah anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju dengan kenyataan berikut berkenaan tahap kekosongan jawatan sebagai telah mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela? (Jika tidak, terus menjawab soalan 36)

	SANGAT	BER-	TIDAK	TIDAK	SANGAT
	BER-	SETUJU	PASTI	BER-	TIDAK
KENYATAAN	SETUJU			SETUJU	BERSETUJU

- a. saya berhenti kerja yang lalu kerana pada masa itu banyak kerja kosong dalam pasaran buruh

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

V79[]12

36. Jika anda telah memilih "1" atau "2" sebagai jawapan anda bagi soalan 33(c), sejauh manakah anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju dengan kenyataan berikut berkenaan tahap pengangguran sebagai telah mempengaruhi keputusan anda berhenti kerja secara sukarela.

	SANGAT	BER-	TIDAK	TIDAK	SANGAT
	BER-	SETUJU	PASTI	BER-	TIDAK
KENYATAAN	SETUJU			SETUJU	BERSETUJU

- a. Saya berhenti kerja yang lalu kerana tahap pengangguran adalah rendah

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

V80[]13

January 1990

RESEARCH ON LABOUR TURNOVER IN PENINSULAR MALAYSIA

Dear Sir,

A survey is currently being undertaken on Blue-Collar worker turnover in Peninsular Malaysia. This survey covers five types of manufacturing industries in three major cities.

Beside fulfilling the requirements for a Ph.D of The University of Stirling, Scotland, this research will hopefully be a great use to me in my career as a lecturer with University Sains Malaysia. The results of this survey will be most useful for both the private as well as public sector, especially for the future policy making of these establishments.

Eventhough I have made provision, for names and addresses of respondents to be recorded, please be assured that all information provided will be treated in the strictest confidence.

Your cooperation and assistance is highly appreciated.
Thank you.

Yours Sincerely,

ABDUL RAZAK HJ OMAR,
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT,
UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING,
STIRLING, FK9 4LA,
SCOTLAND, UNITED KINGDOM.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE BEGINS ON THE FOLLOWING PAGE.

APPENDIX 2

V1[: :]1-3

PERSONNEL MANAGERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

DEAR SIR/MADAM

PLEASE TICK [/] ONE ANSWER (THE CLOSEST) ONLY FOR EACH QUESTION.

THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. THIS IS ONLY A SURVEY.

PLEASE ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS.

YOUR RESPONSE TO SOME QUESTIONS MAY DICTATE THAT YOU SKIP THE FOLLOWING QUESTION WHERE THIS OCCURS, THIS WILL BE INDICATED.

BLANK SPACE ON COL.4 []4

DO NOT
WRITE HERESECTION A: GENERAL FACTORS

1. Location of your organisation?

Kuala Lumpur []1

Johor Bahru []2

Pulau Pinang []3

2. Type of industry?

Wood and Wood Products []1

Textiles Products []2

Electrical and Electronic products []3

Food Products []4

Rubber Products []5

SECTION B: DEMOGRAPHICS AND PERSONAL FACTORS

3. In your opinion, (based on your experience), which of the following characteristics apply to your Blue-Collar workers who left their job voluntarily.

a. They are mostly females

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
RACES					
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

b. They are mostly young workers

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

c. They are mostly have better education

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

d. They are mostly married workers

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

e. With shorter length of service

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

4. In your view, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following personal factors as having influenced your Blue-Collar workers' decision to voluntarily leave your organisation.

a. Family problems

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

b. Health problems

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

c. Starting own business

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

d. Joining other services

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

e. Going for further studies

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

f. Transportation problems

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

g. Housing Problems

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

h. Career Development Problems

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

i. To Work at Place of Residence

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

SECTION C: ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS

5. In your view, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following factors as having influenced your Blue-Collar workers' decision to voluntarily leave your organisation.

a. Pay

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

b. Promotion

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

c. Supervisory Practices

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

d. Peer group interaction

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

e. Work unit size

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

f. Job Content

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

g. Job Security

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

h. Working Conditions

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

i. Working Hours

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

6. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q5(a), to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements which represent reasons of pay as factor influencing yours Blue-Collar workers' decision to voluntarily leave your organisation. (Otherwise go to question 7).

STATEMENT

Blue-Collar workers leave because:

- a. They get better pay from new job

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

b. They feel they deserved more pay compared to their efforts

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

c. They feel they deserved more pay compared to their qualifications

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

d. They feel of receiving inadequate pay for normal expenses

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

e. They are not satisfied with pay

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

7. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q5(b), to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements which represent reasons of promotion as factor influencing your Blue-Collar workers' decision to voluntarily leave your organisation. (Otherwise go to question 8)

STATEMENT

Blue-Collar workers leave because:

a. They feel that their job is a dead-end job

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

b. They feel our organisation practice an unfair promotion policy

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

c. They feel they had less opportunity for promotion compared to other organisation

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

d. They were offered to better positions in other organisation

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

e. They are not satisfied with the promotion system

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

8. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q5(c), to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements which represent reasons of supervisory practices as factor influencing your Blue-Collar workers' decision to voluntarily leave your organisation. (Otherwise go to question 9)

STATEMENT

Blue-Collar workers leave because they feel:

- a. Their supervisor is too concerned with production

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

- b. Their supervisor is less concern with their employees

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

- c. Their supervisor adopts an authoritarian style

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

- d. Less satisfied with their supervisor

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

e. They received inadequate treatment from their supervisor

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

9. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q5(d), to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements which represent reasons of peer group interaction as factor influencing your Blue-Collar workers' decision to voluntarily leave your organisation. (Otherwise go to question 10)

STATEMENT

Blue-Collar workers leave because they feel:

- a. There is a lack of team spirit among their peer group

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

- b. Not satisfied with their peer group

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

- c. They had less chance to talk among their peer group

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

d. They can easily make enemies among their peer group

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

e. They do not have close friend at work

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

10. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q5(e), to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements which represent reasons of work units size as factor influencing your Blue-Collar workers' decision to voluntarily leave your organisation. (Otherwise go to question 11)

STATEMENT

Blue-Collar workers leave because they feel:

a. Their work units are too crowded

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

11. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q5(f), to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements which represent reasons of job content as factor influencing your Blue-Collar workers' decision to voluntarily leave your organisation. (Otherwise go to question 12)

STATEMENT

Blue-Collar workers leave because they feel:

a. Their job are too routine

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

b. They were given less responsibility at work

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

c. They were given less autonomy at work

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

d. Their jobs are too demanding

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

12. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q5(g), to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements which represent reasons of job security as factor influencing your Blue-Collar workers' decision to voluntarily leave your organisation.
(Otherwise go to question 13).

STATEMENT

Blue-Collar workers leave because they feel:

a. Their job are not secure

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

b. Their job are temporary

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

c. Not satisfied with their job security

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

d. Necessary to avoid being dismissed

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

13. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q5(h), to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements which represent reasons of working conditions as factor influencing your Blue-Collar workers' decision to voluntarily leave your organisation.
(Otherwise go to question 14).

STATEMENT

Blue-Collar workers leave because they feel:

a. Their working conditions are unsatisfactory

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

b. Their working conditions are unhealthy

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

14. If you have chosen "1" or "2" as your answer in Q5(i), to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements which represent reasons of working hours as factor influencing your Blue-Collar workers' decision to voluntarily leave your organisation. (Otherwise go to question 15)

STATEMENT

Blue-Collar workers leave because they feel:

a. Working hours are too long

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY UNDECIDED
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

b. Not satisfied with the working hours

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

SECTION D: EXTERNAL FACTOR

15. In your view (based on your experience), to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding external factors as having influencing your Blue-Collar workers' decision to voluntarily leave their organisation.

STATEMENT

Blue-Collar workers leave because they feel:

- a. There is alternative employment available

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

- b. There are a lot of job vacancies

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

- c. The level of unemployment is very low

RACES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
MALAY	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
CHINESE	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
INDIAN	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1
OTHERS	[]5	[]4	[]3	[]2	[]1

SAS PROGRAMME COMPUTER CODING FRAME FOR
BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN NO.	RECORD NO.	VAR./CODE	
A*	001	Questionnaire Number	001-999	1-3	1	V1	1
Space in Column 4							
1	002	Location of Previous Occupation 1 Kuala Lumpur 2 Johor Bahru 3 Pulau Pinang 4 Others	1-4	5	1	V2	4
2	003	Location of Present Occupation 1 Kuala Lumpur 2 Johor Bahru 3 Pulau Pinang 4 Others	1-4	6	1	V3	4
3	004	Type of Previous Industry 1 Wood and Wood Product 2 Textiles and Textile Products 3 Electrical and Electronic Products 4 Food Manufacturing 5 Rubber Products 6 Other Industry	1-6	7	1	V4	6
4	005	Type of Present Industry 1 Wood and Wood Product 2 Textiles and Textile Products 3 Electrical and Electronic Products 4 Food manufacturing 5 Rubber Product 6 Other Industry	1-6	8	1	V5	6
5	006	Total No.of Workers in Work Unit 1 Small 2 Medium 3 Large	1-3	9-12	1	V6	3

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN RECORD		
				NO.	NO. VAR./CODE	
6	007	Age Now	1-8	13	1	V7 8
		1 15-19				
		2 20-24				
		3 25-29				
		4 30-34				
		5 35-39				
		6 40-44				
		7 45-49				
		8 50 and above				
7	008	Age Start of Employment	1-6	14	1	V8 6
		1 15-19				
		2 20-24				
		3 25-29				
		4 30-34				
		5 35-39				
		6 40 and above				
8	009	Age First Experience Voluntary Resignation	1-6	15	1	V9 6
		1 15-19				
		2 20-24				
		3 25-29				
		4 30-34				
		5 35-39				
		6 40 and above				
9	010	Age of Last Exp. Vol. Resignation	1-6	16	1	V10 6
		1 15-19				
		2 20-24				
		3 25-29				
		4 30-34				
		5 35-39				
		6 40 and above				
10	011	No. of Vol. Res. Since Initial Emp.	1-8	17	1	V11 6
		1 One				
		2 Two				
		3 Three				
		4 Four				
		5 Five				
		6 Six				
		7 Seven				
		8 Eight or More				

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN NO.	RECORD NO.	VAR./CODE
11		Date of Resignations				
12	012	Length of Service	1-7	18	1	V12 7
		1 0- 6 months				
		2 7-12 months				
		3 13-18 months				
		4 19-24 months				
		5 25-30 months				
		6 31-36 months				
		7 37 or more				
13	013	No. of Job Held	1-8	19	1	V13 8
		1 One				
		2 Two				
		3 Three				
		4 Four				
		5 Five				
		6 Six				
		7 Seven				
		8 Eight or More				
14	014	Marital Status	1-4	20	1	V14 4
		1 Single				
		2 Married With Children				
		3 Married no Children				
		4 Divorce/Widowed				
15	015	Sex	1-2	21	1	V15 2
		1 Male				
		2 Female				
16	016	Race	1-4	22	1	V16 4
		1 Malay				
		2 Chinese				
		3 Indian				
		4 Others				
17	017	Total No.in the Family	1-8	23	1	V17 8
		1 One				
		2 Two				
		3 Three				
		4 Four				
		5 Five				
		6 Six				
		7 Seven				
		8 Eight or More				

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN RECORD			
				NO.	NO.	VAR./CODE	
18	018	No.of Dependents	1-8	24	1	V18	8
		1 One					
		2 Two					
		3 Three					
		4 Four					
		5 Five					
		6 Six					
		7 Seven					
		8 Eight or More					
19	019	Level of Education	1-6	25	1	V19	6
		1 No Education at all					
		2 Completed Standard Six					
		3 Lower Certificate of education					
		4 Malaysian School Certificate					
		5 Technical School Certificate					
		6 Others					
20	020	Years of Educations	1-4	26	1	V20	4
		1 0 - 6 years					
		2 7 - 13 years					
		3 14- 20 years					
		4 21 or more					
21	021	View on Personal Problem	1-2	27	1	V21	2
		1 Agree					
		2 Disagree					
22a	022	Reasons on Personal Problem (Family)	1-5	28	1	V23	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
22b	023	Reasons on Personal Problem (Health)	1-5	29	1	V23	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN NO.	RECORD NO.	VAR./CODE	
22c	024	Reasons on Personal Problem (Plan to do own Business)	1-5	30	1	V24	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
Space in Column 31							
22d	025	Reasons on Personal Problem (Join Others Services)	1-5	32	1	V25	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
22e	026	Reasons on Personal Problem (Further Study)	1-5	33	1	V26	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
22f	027	Reasons on Personal Problem (Transportation Problem)	1-5	34	1	V27	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
22g	028	Reasons on Personal Problem (Housing Problem)	1-5	35	1	V28	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN RECORD			
				NO.	NO.	VAR./CODE	
22h	029	Reasons on Personal Problem (Career Development)	1-5	36	1	V29	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
22i	030	Reasons on Personal Problem (Locality)	1-5	37	1	V30	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
23a	031	View on Pay	1-5	38	1	V31	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
23b	032	View on Promotion	1-5	39	1	V32	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
23c	033	View on Supervisory Style	1-5	40	1	V33	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
23d	034	View on Peer Group Interaction	1-5	41	1	V34	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN NO.	RECORD NO.	VAR./CODE	
23e	035	View on Work Unit Size	1-5	42	1	V35	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
23f	036	View on Job Content	1-5	43	1	V36	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
23g	037	View on Job Security	1-5	44	1	V37	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
23h	038	View on Working Condition	1-5	45	1	V38	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
23i	039	View on Working Hours	1-5	46	1	V39	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					

24 Reason on Pay

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN NO.	RECORD NO.	VAR./CODE
24a	040	Low Pay Compared to Present Job 1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Undecided 4 Disagree 5 Strongly Disagree	1-5	47	1	V40 5
24b	041	Less pay than I deserve 1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Undecided 4 Disagree 5 Strongly Disagree	1-5	48	1	V41 5
24c	042	Inadequate pay compare to my qualification 1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Undecided 4 Disagree 5 Strongly Disagree	1-5	49	1	V42 5
24d	043	Inadequate for normal expenses 1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Undecided 4 Disagree 5 Strongly Disagree	1-5	50	1	V43 5
24e	044	Not satisfied with my pay 1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Undecided 4 Disagree 5 Strongly Disagree	1-5	51	1	V44 5

25 Reason for Promotion

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN		RECORD	
				NO.	NO.	VAR./CODE	
25a	045	Dead-end Job	1-5	52	1	V45	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
25b	046	Unfair Promotion Policy	1-5	53	1	V46	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
25c	047	Less Opportunity compared to present job	1-5	54	1	V47	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
25d	048	Being offered for better job	1-5	55	1	V48	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					
Space in Column 56							
25e	049	Not satisfied with promotion policy	1-5	57	1	V49	5
		1 Strongly Agree					
		2 Agree					
		3 Undecided					
		4 Disagree					
		5 Strongly Disagree					

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN NO.	RECORD NO.	VAR./CODE
26		Reason for Supervisory Style				
26a	050	Too stress on productivity	1-5	58	1	V50 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
26b	051	Less consideration on employee	1-5	59	1	V51 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
26c	052	Authoritarian Style	1-5	60	1	V52 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
26d	053	Less satisfaction with supervisor	1-5	61	1	V53 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
26e	054	Inadequate Treatement from supervisor	1-5	62	1	V54 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN NO.	RECORD NO.	VAR./CODE

27		Reason for Peer Group Interaction				
27a	055	Lack of team Spirit	1-5	63	1	V55 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
27b	056	Less Satisfaction with peer	1-5	64	1	V56 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
27c	057	Less talk	1-5	65	1	V57 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
27d	058	Easy to make Enemies	1-5	66	1	V58 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
27e	059	No Close friend	1-5	67	1	V59 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN NO.	RECORD NO.	VAR./CODE
27f	060	Unfair Interaction among peer	1-5	68	1	V60 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
28 Reason for Unit size						
28a	061	Unit size is too crowded	1-5	69	1	V61 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
29 Reason for Job Content						
29a	062	Routine Job	1-5	70	1	V62 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
29b	063	Less Responsibility	1-5	71	1	V63 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
29c	064	Less Autonomy	1-5	72	1	V64 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN RECORD		
				NO.	NO.	VAR./CODE
29d	065	Too Demanding	1-5	73	1	V65 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
30	Reason	for Job Security				
30a	066	Not Secure	1-5	74	1	V66 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
30b	067	Only a Temporary Job	1-5	75	1	V67 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
30c	068	Not Satisfied with Job Security	1-5	76	1	V68 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
30d	069	Avoiding Being Dismissed	1-5	77	1	V69 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
31	Reason	for Working Condition				
31a	070	Working Condition were not secure	1-5	78	1	V70 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN NO.	RECORD NO.	VAR./CODE
31b	071	Working Condition were unhealthy 1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Undecided 4 Disagree 5 Strongly Disagree	1-5	79	1	V71 5
Column 80 - Card 1						
31c	072	Not satisfied with Working Conditions 1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Undecided 4 Disagree 5 Strongly Disagree	1-5	5	2	V72 5
32	Reason for Working Hour					
32a	073	Not Satisfied with Working Hours 1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Undecided 4 Disagree 5 Strongly Disagree	1-5	6	2	V73 5
32b	074	Working Hours were Too long 1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Undecided 4 Disagree 5 Strongly Disagree	1-5	7	2	V74 5
33	External Factors					
33a	075	Availability of Alternative Employment 1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Undecided 4 Disagree 5 Strongly Disagree	1-5	8	2	V75 5

Appendix Five

Coding Frame

QUES. NO.	VAR. NO.	VARIABLE NAME	CODE	COLUMN NO.	RECORD NO.	VAR./CODE
33b	076	The Level of Job vacancy	1-5	9	2	V76 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
33c	077	The Level of Unemployment	1-5	10	2	V77 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
34	Reason	for External factor				
34a	078	There was Another Job	1-5	11	2	V78 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
34b	079	Lots of Job vacancy	1-5	12	2	V79 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				
34c	080	Level of Unemployment very Low	1-5	13	2	V80 5
		1 Strongly Agree				
		2 Agree				
		3 Undecided				
		4 Disagree				
		5 Strongly Disagree				

Column 80 - Card 2.

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT
UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING
STIRLING, SCOTLAND FK9 4LA
TELEPHONE: (0786) 73171
TELEX: 777557 STUNIV G
FAX 0786 63000



SB/SM

1 March 1989

To Whom It May Concern

Mr ABDUL RAZAK HJ OMAR is a PhD student at the University of Stirling who is conducting research on employer - employee relationships in Malaysia. After six months' work at Stirling he has developed the broad outlines of his research but, before he finalises his approach, it is necessary for him to return home to check on the availability of certain kinds of information and to develop contacts with organisations which may be prepared to be involved with the research. I do hope that you will be able to assist Mr Razak whose work will be of considerable interest to Malaysian organisations.

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading 'Stewart Butts'.

DR STEWART BUTTS
Lecturer in Business and Management

Head of Department: Professor Tom Cannon



UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING

STIRLING FK9 4LA SCOTLAND

Telephone: (0786) 73171

Telex: 777557 STUNIV G

Fax No. 0786 63000 International +44 786 63000

DIVISION OF BUSINESS STUDIES

Head of Division: Professor Michael Hughes

School of Accountancy, Business, Computing
and Economics

The Registrar
Personnel Department
11800 University Sains Malaysia
Minden
Penang
Malaysia

5th December 1989

Dear Registrar

Mr Abdul Razak Hj Omar will be returning to Malaysia in the next few weeks to collect the data required for his research project. This is likely to take between 3 and 6 months. It is not possible at this stage to be more accurate in predicting how long his data collection will take because of the inevitable complications in a study of labour turnover. Mr Omar continues to work hard and his research is progressing well.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads 'Stewart Butts'.

DR STEWART BUTTS
Lecturer in Business Studies



UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING

STIRLING FK9 4LA SCOTLAND

Telephone: (0786) 73171

Telex: 777557 STUNIV G

Fax No. 0786 63000 International +44 786 63000

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS STUDIES

Head of Department: Professor Michael Hughes

School of Management

Ref SB/SB/1

Puan Rogayah Hussein
Registrar
Personnel Department
11800 University Sains Malaysia
Minden, Penang
MALAYSIA

30 August 1990

Dear Mrs Rogayah

Abdul Razak Hj Omar

Mr Omar has been making good progress in the analysis of the data he collected on voluntary labour turnover. However, as the analysis has developed it has become apparent that there is a small but important gap in his data which must be covered before he can submit his thesis. For this reason I recommend that he returns to Malaysia for about two months to collect this information which is crucial to the successful completion of his work.

With best wishes

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading 'Stewart Butts'.

Dr Stewart Butts



UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING
STIRLING FK9 4LA SCOTLAND

Telephone: (0786) 73171

Telex: 777557 STUNIV G

Fax No. 0786 63000 International +44 786 63000

DIVISION OF BUSINESS STUDIES

Head of Division: Professor Michael Hughes

School of Accountancy, Business, Computing
and Economics

15 December 1989

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Mr Abdul Razak HJ Omar is a PhD student at the University of Stirling who is conducting research on labour turnover in Malaysia. He has now reached the stage of approaching organisations and individuals for their help in enabling him to collect the data for his research. I do hope that you will be able to assist him in this research which, I am sure, will be of considerable interest to Malaysian organisations.

.....*Stewart Butts*.....

Dr Stewart Butts

Lecturer in Business Studies



CANSELORI
UNIVERSITI SAINS MALAYSIA

11800 USM Pulau Pinang, Malaysia.

Alamat Kawat: UNISAINS

Teleks: USMLIB MA 40254

Telefon: 883822 (20 Talian)

23 February 1990

Bil Tuan:

Bil Kami:

The Manager/Director
Human Resources/Personnel Department

Dear Sir/Madam,

Mr. Abdul Razak Hj. Omar - Research On
Labour Turnover In Malaysia.

With due respect, I wish to draw your attention
to the above.

Mr. Abdul Razak Hj. Omar a graduate of Universiti
Sains Malaysia, Penang is currently reading for a
PhD at the University of Stirling, Scotland. He is
currently in Penang to conduct a research on labour
turnover in Malaysia. In this respect, I shall
appreciate it most if you could kindly assist the
above mentioned student in whatever possible to realise
his objectives.

Your co-operation and support will very much
appreciated.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

(AHMAD DAUD)

Senior Sports Development Officer.



PENGERUSI JAWATANKUASA KERJA RAYA
DAN KEMUDAHAN AWAM NEGERI JOHOR
JABATAN KERJA RAYA, JOHOR.
JOHOR BAHRU.

Telefon : JB. 235284 (P)

Ruj. Tuan :

Ruj. Kami : PJKRJ/S/1/90

Tarikh : 17.1.1990

KEPADA SESIAPA YANG BERKENAAN

Tuan,

SOKONGAN KEPADA EN ABDUL RAZAK HJ OMAR

Adalah dimaklumkan berhubung dengan perkara di atas, pembawa surat ini iaitu En Abdul Razak bin Hj Omar adalah seorang siswazah PhD di University of Stirling, Scotland yang begitu berminat di dalam kajian 'Perubahan Pekerjaan' dikalangan tenaga pekerja bagi industri-industri yang menjalankan operasi yang melibatkan kayu kayan, getah, elektrik @ elektronik, makanan dan tekstil di Negara ini.

Saya menyokong penuh terhadap usaha dan kajian yang beliau jalankan dan menaruh keyakinan bahawa kajian tersebut sedikit sebanyak akan dapat membantu bagi mengenalpasti masalah dan situasi yang sering berlaku di dalam aspek tersebut.

Kerjasama pihak tuan sangat-sangat diharapkan dan terlebih dahulu diucapkan berbanyak-banyak terima kasih.

BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA

AHMAD BIN ABDULLAH
Ahli Majlis Mesyuarat Kerajaan
Negeri Johor Darul Takzim

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Administrative Management Society (1965)
"Turnover of Office Personnel", Administrative Management, 26, pp.55-58 quoted in Pettman, B.O., (1975), "Labour Turnover and Retention", Grower Press, London.
- Adam, J.H., (1982)
"Longman Dictionary of Business English", Longman York Press, G. Britain.
- Adams, Gerald R., and Schvaneveldt, Jay D., (1985)
"Understanding Research Methods", Longman Inc., London.
- Ajzen, I., and Fishbein, M., (1980)
"Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behaviour", Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Alagandram, Sivananthiram (1977)
"The Impact of Multinational Enterprises on Employment in Malaysia", A Research Paper in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Diploma in Industrial Relations and Labour Studies, Institute of Social Studies, The Hague.
- Ammer, C., & Ammer, D.S., (1977)
"Dictionary of Business and Economics", The Free Press, Collier MacMillan Publishers, London.
- Ang, Linda (1981)
"Labour Turnover Survey", Circular to All Members AG.4/81, Malaysian Employers Federation, Wisma Perdana (2nd. Floor), Jalan Dungun, Kuala Lumpur 23-04, Malaysia.
- Anshar, Azmi M., (1991)
"200,000 Jobless Due to Lack of Incentives", New Straits Times, Malaysia, Wednesday, January 23, p.9.
- Ariff, Mohamed & Tan, Gilbert (1987)
"A Behaviourial Model For Employee Turnover Research: Results From A Singapore Study", Proceedings, Academy of International Business, South East Asia Regional Conference, Kuala Lumpur, pp.111.92 - 111.119.
- Archibald, Kathleen A., (1973)
"Sex and the Public Service", (Ottawa: Information Canada).

- Arles, J.P., (1971)
"Ethnic and Socio-Economic Patterns in Malaysia",
International Labour Review, Vol.104, Dec., No.6, pp.527-554.
- Armknrecht, Paul A., and Early, J.F., (1972)
"Quits in Manufacturing: A study of Their Causes", Monthly
Labour Review, 95, pp.31-37.
- Arnold, H.J. and Feldman, D.C. (1982)
"Multivariate Analysis of the Determinants of Job Turnover",
Journal of Applied Psychology, 67, pp.350-360
- Aun, Wu Min (1983)
"The Industrial Relations Law of Malaysia", Heinemann
Educational Books (Asia) Ltd Singapore.
- Bassett, G.A., (1967)
"A Study of Factors Associated with Turnover of Exempt
Personnel", Crotonville, N.York.: Behaviour Research
Service, General Electric Company.
- Babbie, E., (1986)
"The Practice of Social Research", Wadsworth Publishing Co.,
California.
- Bailey, K.D., (1978)
"Methods of Social Research", MacMillan Publishers, London,
p.178.
- Behrend, Hilde (1953)
"Normative Factors in the Supply of Labour", Manchester
School of Economics and Social Studies, 23, pp.62-76.
- Berg, Ivar., (1970)
"Education and Jobs", New York: Praeger.
- Blauner, Robert (1964)
"Alienation and Freedom", The University of Chicago Press,
Chicago and London.
- Bluedorn, A. C., (1982)
"A Unified Model of Turnover from Organisations", Human
Relations, Vol.35, No.2, pp.135-153.
- Brodman, K., & Hellman, L.P., (1947)
"Absenteeism and Separation in Relation to Length of
Employment", Industrial Medicine, 16, pp.219-222.

- Bowey, A.M (1972)
"Management Practice and the Development of Organisation Theory in Industrial Sociology", Unpublished PhD Thesis, Manchester: Victoria University of Manchester, cited in Price (1975), "A Theory of Turnover" in Pettman, B.O., (1975), "Labour Turnover and Retention", A Grower Press Special Study, G.Braitain, pp.51-75.
- Brackett, M.E., and Spaney, E., (1957)
"What Nurses Like and Dislike About Their Jobs", Modern Hospital, 89, pp.52-58.
- Brayfield, A.H., and Crocket, W.H., (1955)
"Employee Attitudes and Employee Performance", Psychological Bulletin, Vol.52, pp.394-424.
- Brown, J.A. (1956)
"The Social Psychology of Industry", Penguin Books.
- Bucklow, M., (1963)
"Labour Turnover - A Reassessment", Journal of Industrial Relations, 5, pp.29-37
- Burton, J.F., and John, E.P., (1969)
"Interindustry Variations in Voluntary labour Mobility", Industrial Labour Relations Review, 22, pp.639-648.
- Carr, C.B., (1972)
"Total Turnover", Personnel Journal, 51, pp.524-527. in Pettmen, B.O.,(1975) "Labour Turnover and Retention", Grower Press, G.Britain.
- Campion, M.A., Mitchell, M.M., (1986)
"Management Turnover: Experimental Differences Between Former and Current Managers", Personnel Psychology, 39, pp.57-69.
- Campion, M.A., Pursell,E.D., and Brown, B.K., (1988)
"Structure Interviewing: Raising the Psychometric Properties of the Employment Interview", personnel Psychology, 41, pp.25-42.
- Carsten, J.M., and Spector, P.E., (1987)
"Unemployment, Job Satisfaction, and Employee Turnover: A Meta-Analytic Test of the Muchinsky Model", Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol.72, No.3, pp.374-381.

- Chadwick, B.A., Bahr, H.M., and Albrecht, S.L., (1984)
"Social Science Research Methods", Prentice-Hall Inc.,
Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.
- Chong Wah, Lim., (1967)
"Economic Development of Modern Malaysia", Oxford
University Press, Kuala Lumpur.
- Clarke, J.R., (1950)
"Suggestion Systems Can Reduce Turnover", Personnel Journal,
29, pp.207-210.
- Clarke, F.R. (1946)
"Labour Turnover Studies", Personnel Journal, Vol.25, pp.55-
58.
- Clegg, C.W., (1983)
"Psychology of Employee Lateness, Absence, and Turnover: A
Methodological Critique and an Empirical Study", Journal of
Applied Psychology, Vol.68, No.1, pp.88-101.
- Cochran, William G., (1963)
"Sampling Techniques", 2nd editions, New York : Wiley.
- Cook, P.H., (1951)
"Labour Turnover Research", Personnel Management, 33, pp.2-
10.
- Cooper, R., & Payne, R., (1965)
"Age and Absence: A longitudinal study in Three firms,
Occupational Psychology, 39, pp.31-43.
- Dansereau, F., Cashman, J., and Graen, G., (1974)
"Expectancy as a Moderator of the Relationship Between Job
Attitudes and Turnover", Journal of Applied Psychology, 59,
pp.228-229.
- Daud, Fatimah (1985)
"Minah Karan - The Truth About Malaysian Factory Girls",
Department of Antropology and Sociology, University of
Malaya, Kuala Lumpur.
- Downs, S., (1967)
"Labour Turnover in Two Public Service Organisations",
Occupational Psychology, 35, pp.245-252.
- Dunnette, M.D., Arvey, R.D., & Banas, P.A., (1973)
"Why Do They Leave", Personnel, 50, pp.25-38.

- Dunkley, G., (1982)
"Industrial Relations and Labour in Malaysia", Journal of Industrial Relations, September, pp.425-441.
- Edward, P.K., and Sculion, Hugh, (1982)
"The Social Organisation of Industrial Conflict", Basil Blackwell Publisher, Oxford, England.
- Edward, A.L., and Kenney, K.C., (1946)
"A Comparison of the Thurstone and Likert Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction" quoted in M.Fishbein and I.Ajzen (1975) "Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behaviour - An Introduction to Theory and Research", Philippines, Addison - Wesley Publishing Company Inc., pp.249-256.
- Emerson, R (1957)
"Foreward" in King.F.H.H., "New Malayan Nation: A Study of Communalism and Nationalism", New York: Institute of Pacific Relations quoted in Leng, Lee Young and Ting, Martin, "Economic Divisions and Ethnic Differences in Malaysia", Southeast Asian Journal of Social Science, Vol.14, No.2 (1986), pp.85-96.
- Evan, William M., (1963)
"Peer-group Interaction and Organisational Socialization: A Study of Employee Turnover", Am. Sociol. Review, 28, pp.436-40.
- Farris, G.F., (1971)
"A Predictive Study of Turnover", Personnel Psychology, 24, pp.311-328.
- Farkas, A.J., and Tetrick, L.E., (1989)
"A Three-Wave Longitudinal Analysis of the Causal Ordering of Satisfaction and Commitment on Turnover Decisions", Journal of Applied Psychology, 1989, Vol.74, No.6, pp.855-868.
- Federico, J.M., Federico, P., & Lundquist, G.W., (1976)
"Predicting Women's Turnover as a Function of Extent of Met Salary Expectations and Biodemographic Data", Personnel Psychology, 29, pp.559-566.
- Fishbein, M., (1980)
"A Theory of Reasoned Action: Some Applications and Implications", in H.Howe and M. Page (Eds.), Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, Lincon: University of Nebraska Press, Vol.27, pp.65-177.

- Fleishman, E.A., Harris, E.F., & Burt, H.E., (1955)
"Leadership and Supervision in Industry", Bureau of
Education, Research Monograph, No.33, Ohio State University,
Columbus, Ohio.
- Fleishman, E.A., & Berniger, J., (1960)
"One Way to Reduce Office Turnover", Personnel, 37, pp.63-
39.
- Fleishman, E.A., and Harris, E.F., (1962)
"Patterns of Leadership Behaviour Related to Employee
Grievances and Turnover", Personnel Psychology, 15, No.1,
pp.43-56.
- Flowers, V.S., and Hughes, C.L., (1973)
"Why Employees Stay", Harvard Business Review, July-
August, pp.49-60.
- Forbes, A.F., (1971)
"Non-Parametric Methods of Estimating The Survivor
Function", The statistician, 20, pp.27-51. In Pettman, B.O.,
(1975) "Labour Turnover and retention", Grower Press,
G.Britain.
- Ford, C., (1979)
"Industrial Policy and Conditions of Employment in
Malaysia", ICFTU Manual of Employment Policies, May 31,
Section 6.
- Freedman, Maurice (1961)
"The Handling of Money: A Note on the Background of the
Economic Sophistication of the Overseas Chinese", pp.38-42
in T.H. Silcock, ed., Reading in Malayan Economics, Eastern
University Press, Singapore.
- Fry, Fred L., (1973)
"A Behavioural Analysis of Economic Variables Affecting
Turnover", J. Behavioural Economic, 2, pp.247-95.
- Furnivall, J.S., (1939)
"Netherlands India", Cambridge University Press, Cambridge,
quoted in Rabushka, Alvin (1973), "Race and Politics in Urban
Malaya, Hoover Institution Press, Stanford University,
California.
- Gaudet, F.J. (1958)
"What Top Management Doesn't Know About Turnover",
Personnel, 34, pp. 54-59

- Greeley, A.M, (1972)
"The Catholic Priest in the United States, Washington: US Catholic Conference, cited in Price (1975), "A Theory of Turnover" in Pettman, B.O., (1975), "Labour Turnover and Retention", A Grower Press Special Study, G.Braitain, pp.51-75.
- Giese, W. J. & Ruter, H. W. (1949)
"An Objective Analysis of Morale", Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol.33, pp.421-427.
- Goldthorpe, John H., David Lockwood, Frank Beehhofer, & Jenifer Platt (1968)
"The Affluent Worker", Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Gomersall, E.R., & Myers, M.S., (1966)
"Breakthrough in On-the-Job Training, Harvard Business Review, 44, pp.62-72.
- Goodman, Paul S., Paul Salipante, & Harold Paransky (1973)
"Hiring, Training, and Retaining the Hard-core Unemployed: A Selected Review", J.Appl.Psychol., 58, pp.23-33.
- Gow, J.S., Clark, A.W., and Dossett, G.S., (1974)
"A Path Analysis of Variables Influencing Labour Turnover", Human Relations, 27, pp.23-33.
- Gross, Llewellyn, Elliot H.Grosop, & Constantine, A.Yeracaris (1972)
"A General Theory of Labour Turnover in Hospitals", Patients, Physicians and Illness, ed.E.Gartly Jaco, New York: Free Press.
- Gullick, J.M., (1964)
"Malaya", Ernest Benn Limited, London, 2nd. Edition.
- Habbe, S., (1952)
"The Exit Interview: The New Interpretation", Management Record, Vol. XIV, pp.337-338, 371-372.
- Harris, Mary, (1964)
"The Social Aspects of Labour Turnover in The U.S.S.R.", British Journal of Industrial Relations, 2, pp.398-417.
- Hedberg, Magnus (1960)
"The Turnover of Labour in Industry: An Actuarial Study", Acta Sociologica, 5, pp.129-43.

- Heneman, Herbert G., & Kern, Mary S., (1956)
"Exit Interviews", Nursing Outlook, Vol.IV, pp.436-438.
- Herberg, Mangus (1960)
"The Turnover of Labour in Industry: An Acturial Study, Acta Sociological, 5, pp.129-143.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Perterson, R.O., (1957)
"Job Attitudes", Pittsburgh: Psychological Service of Pittsburgh.
- Hedburg, M., (1967)
"The Process of Labour Turnover", Report No.52, Stockholm: Swedish Council for Personnel Administration, in Pettman, B.O.,(1975) "Labour Turnover and retention", London: Grower Press.
- Hillriegel, D., & White, G.E., (1973)
"Turnover of Professionals in Public Accounting: A Comparative Analysis", Personnel Psychology, 26, pp.239-249.
- Hilb, M. (1978)
"The Standardized Exit interview", Personnel Journal, June, pp. 327-329
- Hirschman, Charles (1987)
"The Meaning and Measurement of Ethnicity in Malaysia: An Analysis of Census Classifications", The Journal of Asian Studies, Vol.46, No.3, August, pp.555-582.
- Hoo, B.K., Fernandez., Mahpar, Hafidz., Chong, Elizabeth & Taharim, Norhasiyati., (1991)
"Where have All the Workers Gone", Business Section, The Star, Malaysia, Friday, Febuary 1, pp.2-3.
- Hollenbeck, J.R., & Williams, C.R., (1986)
"Turnover Functionality Versus Turnover Frequency: A Note on Work Attitudes and Organizational Effectiveness", Journal of Applied Psychology, 1986, Vol.71, No.4, pp.606-611.
- Hulin, Charles L., (1968)
"Effects of Changes in Job Satisfaction Level on Employee Turnover", Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol.52, No.2, pp.122-126.
- Ilgen, D.R. & Dugoni, B.J., (1977)
"Initial Orientation to the Organisation: Its Impact on Psychological Processes Associated with Adjustment of New Employees", Kissimee, Fla: Academy of Management.

- Indek, B., & Seashore, S., (1961)
"Effects of Organisation Size on Member Attitudes and Behaviour", Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Survey Research Center of the Institute for Social Research.
- Industrial Society, The (1973)
"Absence and Labour Turnover", quoted in Willien et al., (1979), "Factors Associated with Labour Turnover Among Ancillary Staff in Two London Hospital", Journal of Occupational Psychology, 52, pp.1-16.
- Institute of Manpower Studies (1972)
"A Comparative Study of Labour Wastage in 1970" (Brighton: Report to Civil Service Dept., University of Sussex, Cn27).
- Irzinski, Stanley M., and Kenneth W. Hylbert (1970)
"Factors Related to Counselor Turnover in the Public Programs", Rehabilitation Counseling Bull., 13, pp.300-308.
- Jablonski, W.A., (1975)
"How Useful are Exit Interviews?", Supervisory Management, 20, pp.8-14.
- Jackofsky, E.F., and Peters, L.H., (1983)
"Job Turnover Versus Company Turnover: Reassessment of the March and Simon Participation Hypothesis", Journal of Applied Psychology, Aug., Vol.68, no.3.
- Jesudason, James V., (1989)
"Ethnicity and the Economy - The State, Chinese Business, and Multinationals in Malaysia", Oxford University Press, Singapore.
- Johannsen, H., and Page, G. T., (1975)
"International Dictionary of Management: A Practical Guide", Kogan Page Limited, London.
- Kaplan (1963)
in Voprosy Ekonomiki, No.10, p.47 quoted in Harris, M., (1964), "The Social Aspects Of labour Turnover in the U.S.S.R", British Journal of Industrial Relations, 2, pp.398-417.
- Katzell, Raymond A., Abraham K.Korman, and Edward L.Levine (1971)
"Overview Study of the Dynamics of Worker Job Mobility" (Washington, D.C.: Social and Rehabilitation Serv., US Dept. of Hew.)

- Keller, R.T (1984)
"The Role of Performance and Absenteeism in the Prediction of Turnover", Academy of Management Journal, 27, pp.176-183.
- Kerr, W.A., (1947)
"Labour Turnover and its Correlates", Journal of Applied Psychology, 31, pp.366-371.
- Kerr, W.A., Koopelmeier, G.L., & Sullivan, J.J., (1951)
"Absenteeism, Turnover, and Morale in a Metals Fabrication Factory", Occupational Psychology, Vol.25, pp.50-55.
- Kerlinger, Fred N., (1964)
"Foundations of Behavioural Research", 2nd Editions, Holt Rinehart and Winston Inc., U.S.A.
- Kidder, Louise H., Judd, Charles M., and Smith, Eliot R., (1986)
"Research Methods in Social Relations", Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., New York.
- Klein, V., (1961)
"Working Wives", Occupational Papers, No.4, Institute of Personnel Management, London.
- Knapp, M., Harissits, K., and Missiakoulis, S., (1982)
"Investigating Labour Turnover and Wastage Using the Logit Technique", Journal of Occupational psychology, 55, pp.129-138.
- Knowles, M.C., (1964)
"Personal and Job Factors Affecting Labour Turnover", Personnel Practice Bulletin, 20, pp.25-37.
- Koch, J.L., and Rhodes, S.R., (1981)
"Predictors of Turnover of Female Factory Workers", Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 18, pp.145-161.
- Koch, J.L., and Steers, R.M., (1978)
"Job Attachment, Satisfaction, and Turnover Among Public Sector Employees", Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 12, pp. 119-128.
- Koszegi, Laszlo (1978)
"Labour Turnover and Employment Structure in European Socialist Countries", International Labour Review, Vol.117, No.3, Ma-June 1978, pp.305-318.

- Kraut, A.I., (1970)
"The Prediction of Turnover by Employee Attitudes,
Unpublished Manuscript, in Porter et al., (1973)
"Organisational, Work, and Personal Factors in Employee
Turnover and Absenteeism, Vol.80, No.2, pp.151-173.
- Kraut, A. I., (1975)
Predicting Turnover of Employees From Measured Job
Attitudes", Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance,
1975, 13, pp.233-243.
- Lafittle, P., (1958)
"Social Structure and Personality in the Factory", Routledge
and Kegan Paul.
- Landy, F. J., and Farr, J. L., (1983)
"The Measurement of Work Performance: Method, Theory, and
Applications", Academic Press, London.
- Lane, K.F., & Andrew, J.E., (1955)
"A Method of Labour Turnover Analysis", Journal of the Royal
Statistical Society", A, 118, pp.296-323, quoted in William
et al., (1979), "Factors Associated with Labour Turnover
Among Ancillary Staff in Two London Hospitals, Journal of
Occupational Psychology, 52, pp.1-16.
- Lawler, Edward E., (1971)
"Pay and Organizational Effectiveness" New York: McGraw-
Hill.
- Lefkowitz, J., (1967)
"How to Diagnose and Control Personnel Turnover", New York,
BFS Executive Communications, cited in Price (1975), "A
Theory of Turnover" in Pettman, B.O., (1975), "Labour
Turnover and Retention", A Grower Press Special Study,
G.Braitain, pp.51-75.
- Lefkowitz, J. and Katz, M. (1969)
"Validity of Exit Interviews", Personnel Psychology, 22,
pp.445-455
- Lefkowitz, Joel (1971)
"Personnel Turnover", Progress in Clinical Psychology, ed.
L.E. Abt and B.F. Reiss, New York: Grune and Stratton.
- Ley, R., (1966)
"Labour Turnover as a Function of workers Differences, Work
Environment, and Authoritarianism of Foremen", Journal of
Applied Psychology, 50, pp.497-500

- Lina, Fock Yin Fun (1990)
"An Analysis of Current Turnover for Hong Kong Technicians",
A Dissertation Summited in Part Fulfilment of the Degree of
Master of Business Administrations, University of Stirling.
- Life Office Management Association (1968)
"Home Office Employee Terminations" (New York: Personnel
Administrations, Report 37, Life Office Management
Association).
- Long, J.R., (1951)
"Labour Turnover Under Full Employment", Studies in
Economics and Society, Monograph A2, University of
Birmingham.
- Lyons, Thomas F., (1968)
"Nursing Attitudes and Turnover", Ames: Industrial Relations
Center, Iowa State University.
- Mackay, D.I., D. Boddy, J.A.Diack, and J.Jones, (1971)
"Labour Markets", George Allen, London.
- Macy, B.A., & Mirvis, P.H., (1983)
Assessing Rates and Costs of Individual Work Behaviours, in
S.E. Senshore, E.E. Lawler, P.H.Mirvis & C.Cammann (Eds.),
"Assessing Organisational Change", New York: Weiley, pp.139-
177.
- March, Arthur (1979)
"Concise Encyclopedia of Industrial Relations", Grower
Press, England.
- March, James G.(ed.) and Herbert A.Simon (1958)
"Organizations", Wiley, New York.
- March, Robert M., and Mannari, H., (1971)
"Lifetime Commitment in Japan: Roles, Norms, and Values",
Am. J. Sociol., 76, pp.795-812.
- March, R., and Mannari, H., (1977)
"Organizational Commitment and Turnover : A Predictive
Study", Administrative Science Quarterly, 22, pp.57-75
- Malaysia (1963)
"The Malaysian Constitution", Article 160 (2), Kuala
Lumpur.

- Malaysia (1971)
"Second Malaysia Plan, 1971-1975", Government Press, Kuala Lumpur.
- Malaysia (1972)
"Malaysia Industrial Classification (updated) 1972",
Department of Statistics, Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur.
- Malaysia (1973)
"Mid-Term Review of the Second Malaysia Plan", Government
Printer, Kuala Lumpur.
- Malaysia (1976)
"Third Malaysia Plan, 1976-1980", Government Press, Kuala
Lumpur.
- Malaysia (1980)
"Directory of Occupational Classification", Manpower
Department, Ministry of Labour and Manpower, Malaysia
- Malaysia (1981)
"Fourth Malaysia Plan 1981-1985", National Printing
Department, Kuala Lumpur.
- Malaysia (1986)
"Fifth Malaysia Plan 1986-1990", National Printing
Department, Kuala Lumpur.
- Malaysia (1987)
"Employment Turnover Survey" First and Second Half of 1987,
Vol.19 and 20, Manpower Department, Ministry of Labour,
Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.
- Malaysia (1987a)
"Annual Report 1987", Malaysian Industrial Development
Authority, Wisma Damansara, Jalan Samantan, Kuala Lumpur,
Malaysia.
- Malaysia (1987b)
"Labour and Manpower Report 1987/88", The Research and
Planning Division, Ministry of Human Resources, Kuala
Lumpur.
- Malaysia (1988)
"Employment Turnover Survey" First and Second Half of 1988,
Vol.21 and 22, Manpower Department, Ministry of Labour,
Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

- Malaysia (1988a)
"Job Go A-Bagging in Garment Factories", The Star, April 29, p.5.
- Malaysia (1988b)
"Johore - Basic Facts and Figures For Investors", Johore State Economic Development Corporation (JSEDC), 9th Floor, KOMTAR, Johor Bahru, Johore, Malaysia.
- Malaysia (1988c)
"Malaysia - Manpower for Industry", Malaysian Industrial Development Authority, Inventra Print Sdn Bhd., Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, November.
- Malaysia (1988d)
"Economic Report 1988/89", Ministry of Finance Malaysia, National Printing Department, Kuala Lumpur.
- Malaysia (1988e)
"Workers' Pay and Profits", The Star, March 30, p.6.
- Malaysia (1989)
"Employment Turnover Survey" First and Second Half of 1989, Vol.23 and 24, Manpower Department, Ministry of Labour, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.
- Malaysia (1989a)
"Employment - An Overview of Latest Trends", Malaysia Employment Trend, January, Issue No.2, Manpower Department, Ministry of Labour, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.
- Malaysia (1989b)
"Employment Situation - An Overview of Latest Trends", Malaysia Employment Trend, July, Issue No.3, Manpower Department, Ministry of Labour, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.
- Malaysia (1989c)
"Information - Malaysia 1989 YearBook", Berita Publishing Sdn. Bhd., Kuala Lumpur.
- Malaysia (1989d)
Consultant's Report on Manpower Needs in Johor, Johore State Economic Corporation.
- Malaysia (1989e)
"Benefits Under Labour Law, Malaysia", Research and Planning, Ministry of Labour Malaysia.

- Malaysia (1990)
"Kenapa Baru Sekarang Isu Siswazah Tidak Mampu Berbahasa Inggeris DiHebohkan?", Utusan Malaysia, 12th June.
- Malaysia (1991)
"Gara-Gara Tahi Samsu", Utusan Malaysia, 24th March, p.1.
- Malaysia (1991b)
"Manpower Shortages a Perpetual Problem", The Star, February 6, Business Section, p.3.
- Mandell, M., (1956)
"Recruiting and Selecting Office Employees", American Management Association, New York..
- Martin, T.N. (1979)
"A Contextual Model of Employee Turnover Intentions", Academy of Management Journal, 22, pp.313-324.
- Mangione, T.W., (1973)
"Turnover-Some Psychological and Demographic Correlates", in R.P.Quinn & T.W.Mangione (eds.), the 1969-1970 Survey of Working Conditions. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Survey Center.
- McEvoy, G.M., and Cascio, W.F., (1985)
"Strategies for Reducing Employee Turnover: A Meta-Analysis", Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol.70, No.2, pp.342-353.
- McEvoy, G.M., and Cascio, W.F., (1987)
"Do Good or Poor Performers Leave? A Meta-Analysis of the Relationship Between Performance and Turnover", Academy of Management Journal, Vol.30, No.4, pp.744-762.
- Meltzer, H., (1945)
"Frustration Expectation and Production in Industry", American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 15, pp.329-342.
- Michaels, C.E. and Spector, P.E. (1982)
"Causes of Employee Turnover: A Test of the Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino Model", Journal of Applied Psychology, 67, pp.53-59
- Miller, T.I., (1984)
"The Effects of Employer - Sponsored Child Care on Employee Absenteeism, Turnover, Productivity, Recruitment or Job Satisfaction: What is Claimed and What is Known", Personnel Psychology, 37, pp.277-289.

- Miller, D.C. & Form, W.H. (1951)
"Industrial Sociology", Harper and Brothers, New York.
- Miller, D.T. & Ross, M. (1975)
"Self-Serving Biases in the Attribution of Causality: Fact or Fiction", Psychological Bulletin, 82, pp.213-225.
- Miller, S., & Van Der, Merwe R., (1982)
"Consistency in Interorganisational Labour Turnover: A Follow-up", Journal of Occupational Psychology, 55, pp.185-189.
- Minor, F.J., (1958)
"The Prediction of Turnover of Clerical Employees", Personnel Psychology, 52, pp.394-398.
- Mitchell, J.O. (1981)
"The Effect of Intensions, Tenure, Personal, and Organizational Variables on Managerial Turnover", Academy of Management, 24, pp.742-751.
- Mobley, W.H., (1977)
"Intermediate Linkages in the Relationships Between Job Satisfaction and Employee Turnover", Journal of Applied Psychology, 62, pp.237-240.
- Mobley, W.H., Horner, S.O., & Hollingworth, A.T., (1978)
"An Evaluation of Precursors of Hospital Employee Turnover", Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, 408-414.
- Mobley, W.H., Griffeth, R.W., Hand, H.H., & Meglino, B.M., (1979)
"Review and Conceptual Analysis of the Employee Turnover Process", Psychological Bulletin, Vol.86, No.3, pp.493-522
- Mobley, W.H., (1982)
"Employee Turnover: Causes, Consequences, and Control", Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.
- Monmouthshire (1958)
A Survey of Labour Turnover in the Administrative County of Monmouthshire quoted in Harris, M., (1964), "The Social Aspects Of labour Turnover in the U.S.S.R", British Journal of Industrial Relations, 2, pp.398-417.
- Moreton, Terry (1974)
"Towards a Model of Labour Turnover and Job Choice", Personnel Review, 3, pp.12-22.

- Morse, N.C., and Reimer, E., (1955)
"Experimental Change of a Major Organisational Variables",
Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 52, pp.120-129.
- Morse, N.C., (1953)
"Satisfaction in the White-collar Job", University of
Michigan, Survey Research Center, Michigan.
- Mosel, J.N., and Wade, R.R., (1951)
"A Weighted Application Blank for Reduction of Turnover in
Department Store Sales Clerks", Personnel Psychology, Vol.4,
No.2, pp.177-184.
- Mowday, R.T., Steers, R.M. and Porter, L.W. (1979)
"The Measurement of Organizational Commitment", Journal of
Vocational Behaviour, 17, pp.263-270.
- Mowday, R.T. (1981)
"Viewing Turnover From the Perspective of Those Who Remain:
The Relationship of Job Attitudes to Attributions of the
Cause of Turnover", Journal of Applied Psychology, 66,
pp.120-123.
- Mowday, R.T., Koberg, C.S., & McArthur, A.W., (1984)
"The Psychology of the Withdrawal Process: A Cross-
Validation Test of Mobley's Intermediate Linkages Model of
Turnover in Two Samples", Academy of Management Journal, 27,
pp.79-94.
- Muchinsky, P.M., and Morrow, P.C., (1980)
"A Multi-Dimensional Model of Voluntary Employee Turnover",
Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 17, pp.263-270.
- Muchinsky, P.M. & Turtle, M.L. (1979)
"Employee Turnover: An Empirical and Methodological
Assessment, Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 14, pp.43-77.
- Naylor, J.E., & Vincent, N.L., (1959)
"Predicting Female Absenteeism", Personnel Psychology, 12,
pp.81-84.
- Nachmias, D. and Nachmias, C. (1976)
"Research Methods in Social Sciences", Edward Arnold
(Publishers) Ltd.
- Newman, J.E., (1974)
"Predicting Absenteeism and Turnover: A Field Comparison of
Fishbein's Model and Traditional Job Attitude Measure",
Journal of Applied Psychology, 59, pp.610-616

- Ness, Gary D., (1967)
"Bureaucracy and Rural Development in Malaysia", University of California Press, Berkeley and Los Angeles quoted in Rabushka, Alvin (1973), "Race and Politics in Urban Malaya", Hoover Institution Press, Stanford University, California.
- Nicholson, N., Brown, C.A., and Chadwick-Jones, J.K., (1976),
"Absence From Work and Job Satisfaction", Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol.61, pp.728-737
- Nigam, S.B.L., and Singer, H.W., (1974)
"Labour Turnover and Employment: Some Evidence from Kenya", International Labour Review, Vol.110, No.6, December, pp.479-493.
- Othman, Wan Halim., and Abdullah, M. Shukri (1983)
"A Study of Penang Community Evaluation of Factory Workers", The Free Trade Zone, Penang Companies Association (FREPENCA) and University Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia.
- Parker, J.E. & Burton, J.F (1967)
"Voluntary Labor Mobility in the US Manufacturing Sector", Proceedings of the Industrial Relations Research Association, pp.61-67 cited in Price (1975), "A Theory of Turnover" in Pettman, B.O., (1975), "Labour Turnover and Retention", A Grower Press Special Study, G.Britain, pp.51-75.
- Parnes, Herbert S., (1954)
"Research on Labour Mobility", (New York: Social Science Research Council), 1954 in Price, J.L. "The Study of Turnover", Ames: Iowa State University Press, 1977.
- Parsons, C.K., Herold, D.M., and Leather, M.l., (1985)
"Turnover During Initial Employment: A longitudinal Study of the Role of Causal Attributions", Journal of Applied Psychology, 1985, Vol.70, No.2, pp.337-341.
- Paterson, S.H., (1943)
"Social Aspects of Industry", McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Pearce, Frank T., (1954)
"Financial Effects of Labour Turnover", Birmingham: Res.Board, Faculty of Commerce and Social Science, University of Birmingham.
- Pencavel, John N., (1970)
"An Analysis of the Quit Rate in American Manufacturing Industry", (Princeton: Industrial Relations Section, Dept. of Econ., Princeton University)

- Pettman, B.O., (1973)
"Some Factors Influencing Labour Turnover: A Review of Research Literature", Industrial Relations, 4, pp.43-61.
- Pettman, B. O., (1975)
"Labour Turnover and Retention", Grower Press, London.
- Pigors, P. and Myers, C.A. (1981)
"Personnel Administration: A Point of View and a Method", 9th Ed. New York: Harper.
- Pilch, M.,(1973)
"Labour Turnover and Pension Planning", Moorgate and Wall Street, pp.64-77.
- Poidevin, B.L., (1956)
"A Study of Factors Influencing Labour Turnover", Personnel Practice Bulletin, 12, pp.11-18.
- Porter, L.W., & Steers, R.M., (1973)
"Organisational, Work, and Personnel Factors in Employee Turnover and Absenteeism", Psychological Bulletin, Vol.80, No.2, pp.151-176.
- Porter, L.W., Crampon, W.J. & Smith, F.J. (1976)
"Organizational Commitment and Managerial Turnover: A Longitudinal Study", Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 15, pp. 87-98
- Porter, L.W., Steers, R.M., Mowday, R.T., & Boulian, P.V., (1974)
"Organisational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Among Psychiatric Technicians", Journal of Applied Psychology, 59, pp.603-609.
- Porter, L.W., & Lawler, E, E, III (1965)
"Properties of Organisation Structure in Relation to Job Attitudes and Job Behaviour", Psychological Bulletin, 64, pp.23-51.
- Provencher, Ronald (1987)
"Interethnic Conflict in the Malay Peninsular" in "Ethnic Conflict: International Perspective", Edited by Boucher, Terry., Landis, Dan., Clark, Kaven A., A Sage Publications Inc., pp.92-118.

- Prestholdt, P.H., Lane, I.M., and Mathews, R.C., (1987)
"Nurse Turnover as Reasoned Action: Development of a Process Model", Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol.72, No.2, pp.221-227
- Price, J.L. (1975)
"A Theory of Turnover" in Pettman, B.O.,(1975) "Labour Turnover and Retention", A Grower Press Special Study, G. Britain, pp.51-75.
- Price, J.L. (1977)
"The Study of Turnover". Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press.
- Price, J.L. and Bluedorn, A.C. (1980)
"Test of a Causal Model of Turnover From Organizations", in D.Dunkerley and G.Salaman (eds.), International Yearbook of Organization Studies 1979, London: Routledge and Kegan paul, pp.217-236.
- Price, J.L. and Mueller, C.W. (1981)
"A Causal Model of Turnover for Nurses", Academy of Management Journal, 24, pp.543-565
- Price Waterhouse, (1972)
"Doing Business in Malaysia", Information Guide, Kuala Lumpur.
- Rabushka, Alvin (1973)
"Race and Politics in Urban Malaya", Hoover Institution Press, Stanford University, Stanford, California.
- Rice, A.K., Hill, J.M.M. & Trist, E.L., (1950)
"The Representation of Labour Turnover as a Social Process", Human Relations, 3, pp.349-372, quoted in William et al., (1979) "Factors Associated with Labour Turnover Among Ancillary Staff in Two London Hospitals", Journal of Occupational Psychology, 52, pp.1-16.
- Research and Planning Division (1989)
"Information on Wages Rates Payable in Selected Industrial Establishments in the Manufacturing Sector, Peninsular Malaysia (September 1989), Ministry of Labour Malaysia.
- Robinson, D.D., (1972)
"Prediction of Clerical Turnover in Banks by Means of a Weighted Application Blank", Journal of Applied Psychology, 56, p.282.

- Ronan, W.W., (1967)
"A Study of Some Concepts Concerning Labour Turnover",
Occupational Psychology, 41, pp.193-202.
- Ross, H., and Bouwmeesters, J., (1972)
"Management in Developing Countries : A field Survey",
United Nations Research, Institute for Social Development,
Geneva, pp.69-76
- Saleh, S.D., Lee, R.J., and Prein, E.P., (1965)
"Why Nurses Leave Their Jobs - An Analysis of Female
Turnover", Personnel Administration, 22, pp.25-28.
- Salih, Adel H., and Manfield, Roger (1985)
"Some Factors Influencing Labour Turnover: Personnel
Managers' Views in Iraq", Personnel Review, Vol.14, No.4,
pp.22-28.
- Schuh, Allen J., (1967)
"The Predictability of Employee Tenure: A Review of the
Literature", Personnel Psychology, 20, pp.133-52.
- Silcock (1954)
"The Phenomenon of Labour Turnover", J. Roy. Stat. Soc. Ser.
A, Part 4, 117, pp.429-40.
- Singer, Carmella. (1970)
"Labour Turnover Rates - An International Comparison",
Personnel Practice Bull., 26, pp.109-114.
- Shott, G.L., Albright, L.E., & Glennon, J.R., (1963)
"Predicting Turnover in an Automated Office Situation",
Personnel Psychology, 16, pp.213-219.
- Smith, F.J., and Kerr, W.A., (1953)
"Turnover Factors as Assessed by the Exit Interview",
Journal of Applied Psychology, 37, pp.352-355.
- Spencer, D.G. and Steers, R.M. (1981)
"Performance as a Moderator of the Job Satisfaction-Turnover
Relationship", Journal of Applied Psychology, 66, pp.511-
514.
- Skinner, E.W., (1969)
"Relationships Between Leadership Behaviour, Patterns and
Organisational-Situational Variables", Personnel Psychology,
22, pp.489-94.

- Staw, Barry M., (1980)
"The Consequences of Turnover", Journal of Occupational Behaviour, Vol.1, pp.253-273.
- Steel, R.P., & Griffeth, R.W., (1989)
"The Elusive Relationship Between Perceived Employment Opportunity and Turnover Behavior: A Methodological or Conceptual Artifact?", Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol.74, No.6, pp.846-854.
- Stone, T.H., & Athelstan, G.T., (1969)
"The SIVB for Women and Demographic Variables in the Prediction of Occupational Tenure", Journal of Applied Psychology, 53, pp.408-412.
- Stoikov, V., & Reimon, R.L., (1968)
"Determinants of Differences in the Quit Rate Among Industries", American Economic Review, 58, pp.1283-1298.
- Stumpf, S.A. & Dawley, P.K. (1981)
"Predicting Voluntary and Involuntary Turnover Using Absenteeism and Performance Indices", Academy of Management Journal, 24, pp.148-163.
- Sudman, Seymour., (1976)
"Applied Sampling", Academic Press, New York.
- Super, D.E., (1949)
"Appraising Vocational Fitness by Means of Psychological Tests", New York: Harper.
- Suryadinata, Leo (1985)
"Government Policies Towards the Ethnic Chinese: A Comparison Between Indonesia and Malaysia", Southeast Asian Journal of Social Science, Vol.13, No.2, pp.15-28
- Sawatsky, J.C. (1951)
"Psychological Factors in Industrial Organisation Affecting Employee Stability", Canadian Journal of Psychology, Vol.5, pp.29-38.
- Taylor, K., & Weiss, D., (1969)
"Prediction of Individual Job Termination From Measured Job Satisfaction and Biographical Data", (Research Report No.30) Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Work Adjustment Project, May 1969.

- Telly, C.S., French, W.L. & Scott, W.G. (1971)
"The Relationship of Inequity to Turnover Among Hourly Workers" *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16, pp.164-172.
- Terborg, J.R., & Lee, T.W., (1984)
"A predictive Study of Organizational Turnover Rates", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol.27, No.4, pp.793-810.
- Tiffin, J.F. & Phelan, R.F. (1953)
"Use of the Kuder Preference Record to Predict Turnover in an Industrial Plant", *Personnel Psychology*, 6, pp.195-204.
- Toedt, J.E. (1962)
"Managing Manpower in the Industrial Environment". Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company.
- Tollen, William B.,(1960)
"Study of Staff Losses in Child Welfare and family Service Agencies", (Washington, D.C.: Usgpo)
- Tuttle, J.L., & Cotton, J.L., (1986)
"Employee Turnover: A Meta-Analysis and Review With Implications for Research", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol.11, No.1, pp.55-70.
- U.K. National Economic Development Office (1969)
"Staff Turnover", (London: HMSO).
- U.S.Department of labour (1972)
"Suggestion for Control of Turnover and Absenteeism", Washington, Manpower Administration.
- U.S.Bureau of Labour Statistics (1966)
"Measurement of Labour Turnover" (Unpublished Study, US Department Labour) in Price J.L. (1977) "The Study of Turnover", Ames: Iowa State University Press.
- Van Zeist, R. H., (1952)
"Sociometrically Selected Work teams", *Personnel Psychology*, Vol.5, pp.175-186.
- Van Der Merwe, R., and Miller, S., (1971)
"The Measurement of Labour Turnover", *Human Relations*, Vol.24, No.3, pp.233-253.
- Van Der Merwe, R., and Miller, S., (1975)
"Consistency in Inter-Organisational Labour Turnover", *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 48, pp.137-152.

- Vecchio, R.P., (1985)
"Predicting Employee Turnover From Leader-Member Exchange: A failure To Replicate", *Academy of Management Journal*, 1985, Vol.28. No.2, pp.478-485.
- Visusi, W.K. (1980)
"Sex Differences in Worker Quitting", *Review of Economics and Statistics*, 62, pp.388-398.
- Vroom, V., (1964)
"Work and Motivation", Wiley, New York.
- Wales, Terence J., (1970)
"Quits Rates in Manufacturing Industries in the United States", *Can.J.Econ.*, 3, pp.123-39.
- Walker, K.F., and Lumsden, J., (1963)
"Employee job satisfaction and attitudes - A Survey", *Business Review*, 6, pp.20-24.
- Water, L.K., and Roach, D., (1971)
"Relationship Between Job Attitudes and Two Forms of Withdrawal From the Work Situation", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol.55, No.1, pp.92-94.
- Waters, L.K., Roach, D., & Waters, C.W., (1976)
"Estimate of Future Tenure, Satisfaction, and Biographic Variables as Predictors of termination", *Personnel Psychology*, 1976, 29, 57-60.
- Waters, L.K., and Roach, D., (1979)
"Job Satisfaction, Behavioral Intention, and Absenteeism as Predictors of Turnover", *Personnel Psychology*, 32, Summer, pp.393-397
- White, B.L., (1960)
"Job Attitudes, Absence From Work and Labour Turnover", *Personnel Practice Bulletin*, 16, pp.18-23.
- Wild, R., (1970)
"Job Needs, Job satisfaction, and Job Behaviour of Women Mannual Workers", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 54, pp.157-162.
- Williams, A.; Livy, B.; Silverstone, R.; & Adams, P., (1979)
"Factors Associated with Labour Turnover Among Ancillary Staff in Two Hospitals", *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 1979, 52, pp.1-16.

- Wolpin, J., and Burke, R.J., (1985)
"Relationships Between Absenteeism and Turnover: A Function of the Measures?", *Personnel Psychology*, 1985, 38, pp.57-74.
- Worrell, D.L.; Davidson III, W.N.; Chandy, P.R., & Garrison, S.L., (1986)
"Management Turnover Through Deaths of Key Executives: Effects on Investor Wealth", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol.29, No.4, pp.674-694.
- Wrong, Dennis (1961)
"Population and Society", 2nd. ed., Random House, New York.
- Yassin, Mohamad Trudin (1990)
"The Transferability of Japanese Management Practices: A Case Study of the Malaysian Public Enterprise Sector", Ph.D Thesis, University of Stirling, Scotland.
- Young, Andrew. (1965)
"Models for Planning Recruitment and Promotion of Staff, *Brit. J. Ind. Relations*, 3, pp.301-10.
- Young, Andrew. (1971)
"Demographic and Ecological Models for Manpower Planning, *Aspects of Manpower Planning*, ed.D.J. Bartholomew and B.R. Morris (London: English Univ.).
- Young, Kevin; Bussink, Willem; and Hassan, Parvez (1980)
"Malaysia: Growth and Equity in a Multi-Racial Society", The John Hopkins University Press, Baltimore.
- Yun, Hing Ai., and Talib, Rokiah (ed.), (1986)
"Women and Work in Malaysia", Department of Antropology & Sociology, University of Malaya, Malaysia.